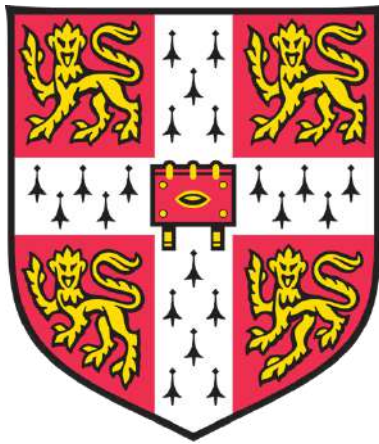


Role of the small subunit of Rubisco in the green algal phylogeny and Carbon Concentrating Mechanism expression



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This dissertation is submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

April 2020

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This thesis is the result of my own work and includes nothing which is the outcome of work done in collaboration except as declared in the Preface and specified in the text. It is not substantially the same as any that I have submitted, or, is being concurrently submitted for a degree or diploma or other qualification at the University of Cambridge or any other University or similar institution except as declared in the Preface and specified in the text. I further state that no substantial part of my thesis has already been submitted, or, is being concurrently submitted for any such degree, diploma or other qualification at the University of Cambridge or any other University or similar institution except as declared in the Preface and specified in the text.

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Myriam Goudet

April 2020

Abstract: Role of the small subunit of Rubisco in the green algal phylogeny and Carbon Concentrating Mechanism expression

Photoautotrophic organisms globally fix $111\text{--}117 \times 10^{15}$ grams of carbon per year and around half of this global net primary production is aquatic (Behrenfeld *et al.*, 2001; Field *et al.*, 1998), with green algae a major contributor to this global carbon fixation. However, aquatic environments have some limitations. The concentration of CO_2 is often 2,200 times lower in water than in air, and diffusion is also 8,000 times slower. In addition, Rubisco, which catalyses the first major step of carbon fixation, converting atmospheric CO_2 into precursors of energy-rich molecules, exhibits slow catalytic rates, low affinity for CO_2 and competition from O_2 for the active sites. Therefore, most green algae have developed a Carbon Concentrating Mechanism (CCM). In eukaryotic micro-algae, the Rubisco micro-compartment is called the pyrenoid and together with active inorganic carbon transporters and strategically located carbonic anhydrases, elevated CO_2 within the pyrenoid improves photosynthetic efficiency. Most photosynthetic organisms have a hexadecameric Rubisco holoenzyme (L_8S_8), composed of eight $\sim 55\text{-kDa}$ large subunit (LSU), encoded by a chloroplast gene (*rbcL*) and eight $\sim 15\text{-kDa}$ small subunit (SSU), encoded by a nuclear gene family (*RbcS*) in Form I Rubisco. The CCM has been particularly well-defined in the model unicellular chlorophyte *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and recent studies showed that for full CCM induction, a key protein linker EPYC1 and its interaction with Rubisco SSU were necessary.

The overall goal of this study was to use a phylogenetic approach, firstly to investigate SSU structure across the green algal phylogeny, and also to explore CCM diversity in two specific groups of species. This study used a variety of methodologies combining physiological experiments, biochemistry, imaging and bioinformatic analyses. The results firstly showed the presence of two different Rubisco SSU structures within the green algae. Secondly, the Rubisco catalytic properties found in streptophyte algae closely related to land plants (streptophytes) reflect the strength of any CCM and pyrenoid leakiness, whereas Rubisco in extant land plants reflects more recent selective pressures associated with the terrestrial atmospheric environment. This research also provides evidence for diversity of CCM expression in two closely related genera (*Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*), ranging from species expressing a CCM and pyrenoid, or a CCM without a pyrenoid, to neither pyrenoid or CCM. This study provides the first preliminary analyses of five different genomes confirming multiple independent origins of the pyrenoid in green algae but has also allowed an initial comparison of the molecular components essential for pyrenoid formation across these species.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

1KP	The 1000 plant project
AIC	Akaike Information Criterion
BIC	Bayesian Information Criterion
CA	Carbonic Anhydrase
CAM	Crassulacean Acid Metabolism
CBB	Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle
CCM	Carbon Concentrating Mechanism
CO ₂	Carbon dioxide
C ₃	C ₃ metabolism
C ₄	C ₄ metabolism
DIW	Deionized Water
EPYC1	Essential Pyrenoid Component 1
GYA	Giga Years Ago
LCI	Low CO ₂ -inducible
LSU	Large Subunit of Rubisco
MCC	Maximum Clade Credibility
MCMC	Markov Chain Monte-Carlo
Mya	Million years ago
NADP(H)	Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide Phosphate
O ₂	Oxygen
LRT	Likelihood Ratio Test
PSI	Photosystem I
PSII	Photosystem II
rbcl	Rubisco Large Subunit gene
RCA	Rubisco activase
<i>RbcS</i>	Rubisco Small Subunit gene
Rubisco	Ribulose-1,5-biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase
SSU	Small Subunit of Rubisco

Chapter 1: General Introduction

1.1 Green algae: A very diverse group of organisms

1.1.1 Origins

Green algae are one of the major groups of oxygenic photosynthetic eukaryotes. Including between 6,000 and 8,000 species (Chapman, 2013), they are now widespread and abundant, and have colonized all the Earth's aquatic environments and many terrestrial habitats and soils. Crucial for our modern ecosystems, algae have shaped the Earth for hundreds of millions of years (Falkowski *et al.*, 2004; O'Kelly, 2007; Leliaert *et al.*, 2011). Green algae conquered the land between 500 and 450 million years ago (Mya) (Gensel *et al.*, 2008; Kenrick *et al.*, 2012; Lenton *et al.*, 2016); a key event in the history of life since it led to a dramatic drawdown of CO₂ and an increase in the oxygen concentration of the atmosphere (Bernier, 2003). The ancestry of land plants is well established and supported by molecular data (Manhart, 1994; Bhattacharya & Ehling, 1995; Kranz & Huss, 1996; Friedl, 1997). Green algae arose from an initial primary endosymbiosis event, which occurred between 1 and 1.5 billion years ago (Gya) (Hedges *et al.*, 2004; Yoon *et al.*, 2004). During this endosymbiotic event, a heterotrophic host cell captured a cyanobacterium (prokaryote) that became stably integrated and ultimately became incorporated as a plastid (Archibald, 2009; Keeling, 2010) (Figure 1.1). The subsequent diversification of this new photosynthetic eukaryote gave rise to the green lineage (green algae) but also to the two other groups of algae: the red algae and the glaucophytes. This first diversification of these algae with a primary plastid in aquatic environments occurred during the "Boring billion" (1,800-800 Mya) (Becker, 2013) when the climate on Earth was stable. Other endosymbiosis events occurred later, diversifying widely into multiple lineages.

The phylogeny of green algae is now well resolved (Leliaert *et al.*, 2012; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020, Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). Following the primary endosymbiosis, the hypothetical ancestral flagellate diversified into two main lineages (Figure 1.2). On one side the chlorophytes diversified early as prasinophytes in the oceans and then as core chlorophytes

Chapter 1: General Introduction

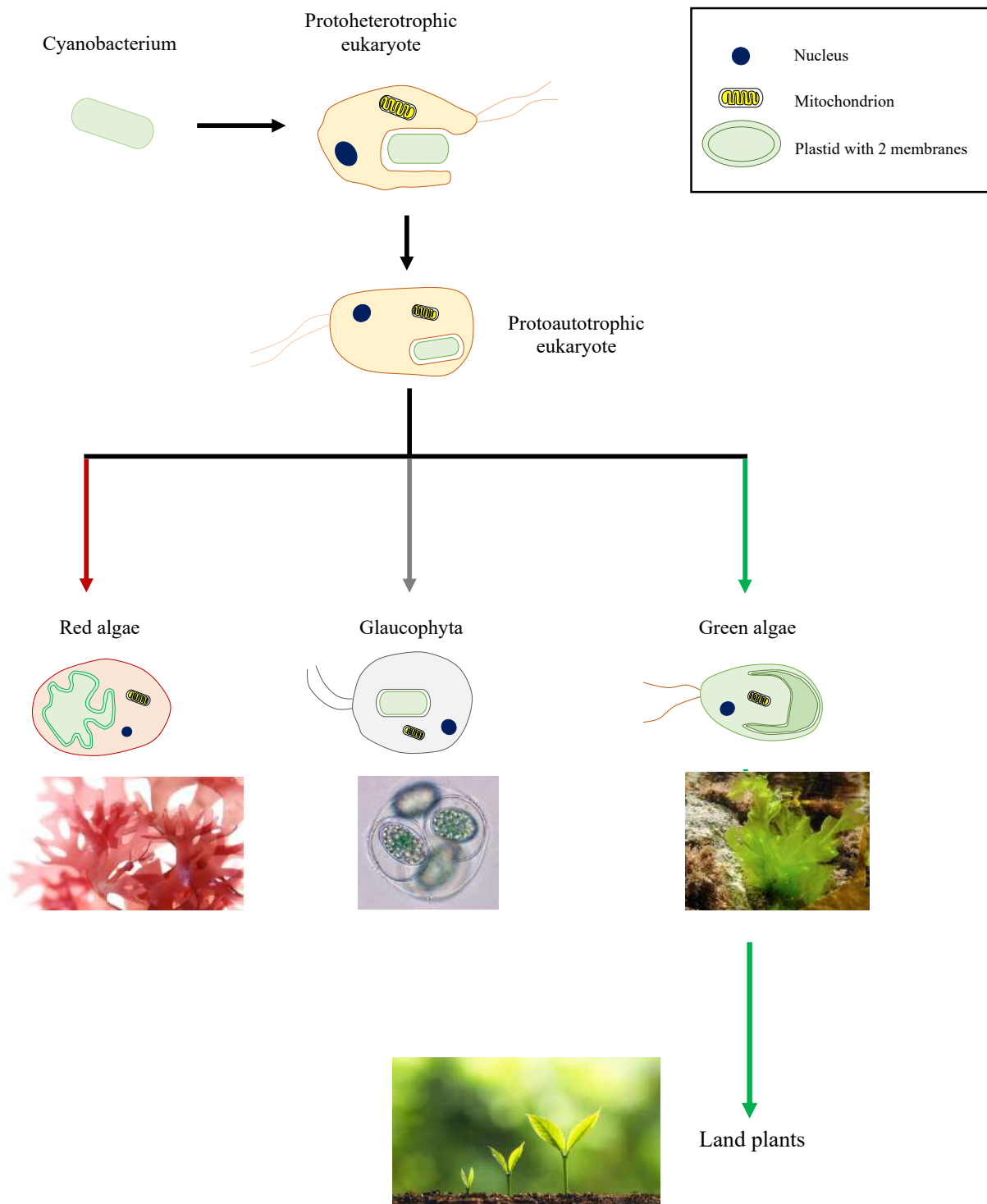


Figure 1.1 The primary endosymbiosis event (adapted from Keeling, 2004) which gave rise to the three different lineages of algae with a primary chloroplast. A heterotrophic host cell (in yellow at the top with flagella) captured a cyanobacterium (prokaryote, in green at the top left) that became stably integrated and turned into a plastid (top middle). The first endosymbiosis gave rise to three different lineages: the red algae, the glaucophytes and the green algae. Later on, other endosymbiotic events occurred giving rise to other lineages not described in this figure, such as the diatoms.

in both fresh and marine environments. It now includes most extant green algae with hundreds of species that play important roles as primary producers in marine and fresh water ecosystems (McCourt *et al.*, 2004). On the other side, the streptophytes (which include both land plants and charophytes) diversified in fresh waters and then colonized land between 500-450 Mya. Such adaptation to fresh waters is thought to be a key element for this later land colonization (Becker, 2013). The split between chlorophytes and streptophytes probably occurred 936 Mya (Becker, 2013) but more recent analyses showed that this split could be older with an estimate dated around 1,000 Mya (early Neoproterozoic; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). Interestingly, the diversification of the streptophytes coincided with the Sturtian glaciation (Gradstein *et al.*, 2004) and a fall in atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration (Pierrehumbert *et al.*, 2011). Although streptophytes are an ancient lineage, they are not as diversified as the chlorophytes.

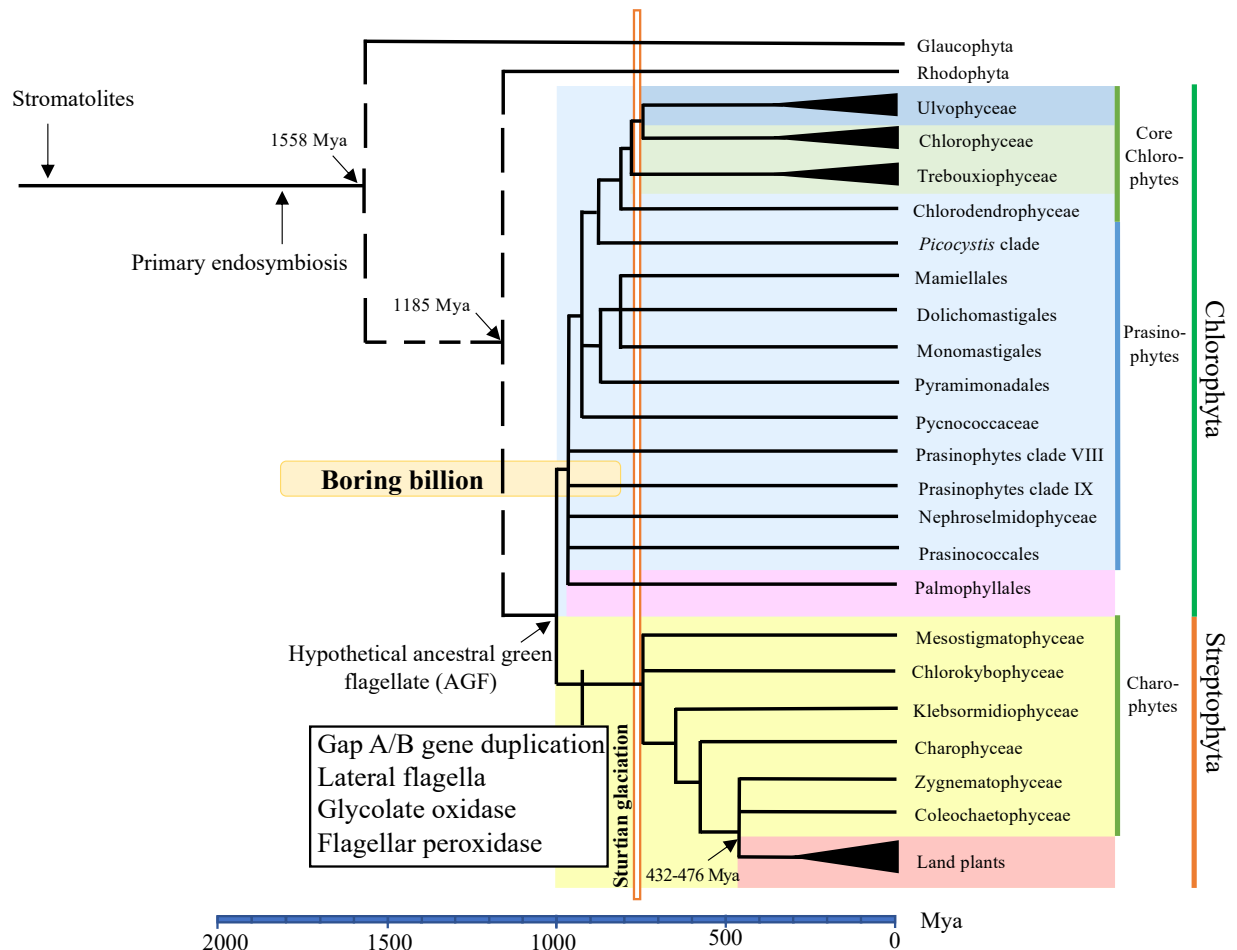


Figure 1.2 Evolutionary relationships of algae arising from the primary endosymbiosis and major glaciation events which occurred during the diversification of the green algae lineages modified from Leliaert *et al.* (2012) and Becker (2013). Evolutionary hypotheses for the streptophyte algae (morphological and molecular characters) are indicated.

1.1.2 Common features

Green algae are unified within the same group because they share common features. The typical green colour of this group is due to the presence of chlorophyll *a* and *b*, whilst the pigments such as carotenes and xanthophylls are also present. Following the primary endosymbiosis, chloroplasts are enclosed by a double membrane, (Figure 1.1) and within the chloroplasts, thylakoids are grouped in lamellae that contain the different chlorophylls. Across green algae, most of them have stiff cell walls with a fibrillar matrix composed of cellulose (Leliaert *et al.*, 2012) and some cells possess structurally similar flagella, though they may be of different lengths. To go further, Melkonian (1984) showed that the flagellar transition zone is characterized by a stellate structure, which is a nine-pointed star linking nine pairs of microtubules.

1.1.3 Diversity

Despite these common features, as a result of a long diversification, green algae show a great diversity of morphology, size and ecology (Figure 1.3). They are present in all aquatic environments, from lakes and rivers to extreme environments. *Dunaliella salina* has been found in hyper-saline conditions where water bodies can contain more than 10% salt (Phadwahi & Singh, 2003) whereas *Klebsormidium flaccidum* has been discovered in acidic waters with extreme concentrations of heavy metals (Zettler *et al.*, 2002). The presence of algae in such habitats is a sign of highly developed adaptations which allow these species to overcome the different environmental pressures. However, most green algae are particularly abundant in freshwaters, although prasinophytes are almost exclusively found in marine water. Seaweeds, such as *Ulva*, *Caulerpa* and *Codium*, are present in coastal habitats (Leliaert *et al.*, 2012), some of which are responsible for the proliferation of algae along coasts (Dion *et al.*, 1998). One of the most striking examples of this green tide is due to *Ulva armoricana* in Brittany, France (Coat *et al.*, 1998). Surprisingly, some green algae can be exclusively terrestrial (Trentepohliales; López-Bautista *et al.*, 2006) or develop symbiosis with fungi to form lichen. The genus *Trebouxia* (Chlorophytes) is probably the most common photobiont in lichens (Honegger, 2018).

Green algae can exhibit a great diversity of sizes, morphology and a range of motile and non-motile forms. Most of the green algae are microscopic (*Ostreococcus*, *Chlamydomonas*), but others can grow thalli up to one meter in length (*Chara*) and look very similar to plants. In addition, species can be branched (*Draparnaldia*) or unbranched

(*Oedogonium*). Finally, they can live in colonies such as *Volvox*, which can include up to 50,000 cells.

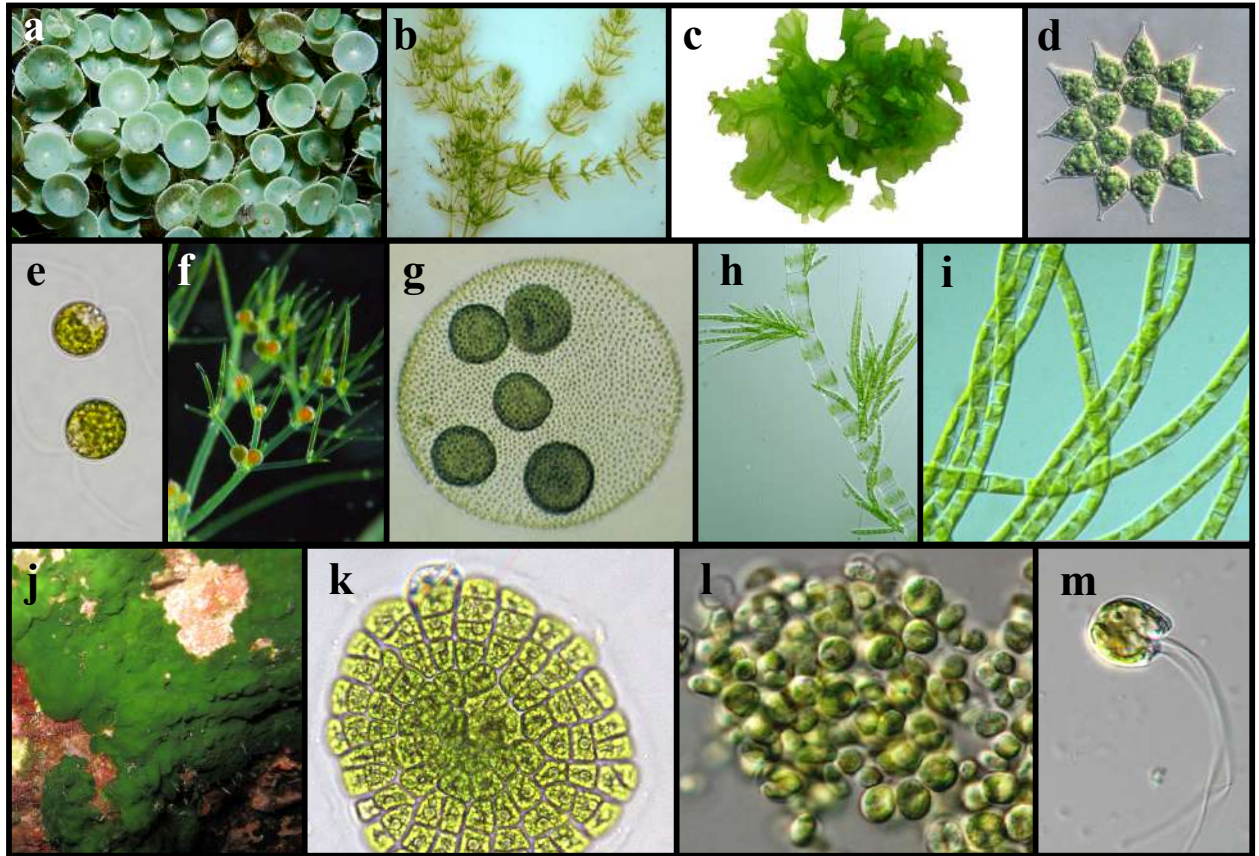


Figure 1.3 Morphological diversity among green algae. **a:** *Acetabularia acetabulum* (Polyphysaceae) Mediterranean marine species; **b:** *Chara braunii* (Characeae) European freshwater species; **c:** *Ulva lactuca* (Ulvaceae) marine worldwide species; **d:** *Pediastrum* (Hydrodictyaceae) photoautotrophic nonmotile algae in freshwaters; **e:** *Dunaliella salina* (Dunaliellaceae) halophile micro-algae; **f:** *Nitella gracilis* (Characeae); **g:** *Volvox globator* (Volvoceae) form spherical colonies in freshwater habitats; **h:** *Draparnaldia plumosa* (Chaetophoraceae) composed of a chain of cells arranged in one row; **i:** *Klebsormidium flaccidum* (Klebsormidiaceae) filamentous charophyte algae; **j:** *Palmophyllum crissum* (Palmophyllaceae) marine species; **k:** *Coleochaete* (Coleochaetaceae) form flat, sprawling discs on solid surfaces in freshwater streams; **l:** *Coccomyxa* (Trebouxiophyceae) small elliptical shape; **m:** *Cymbomonas* (Pyramimonadales) marine prasinophycean green algae.

1.2 Aquatic photosynthesis

Stromatolites are thought to be the first evidence of life on Earth (Schopf, 1992). Around 3.5 Gya old, they were most likely photosynthetic organisms (Schopf, 1993; Figure 1.2). Therefore, photosynthesis is not only one of the oldest biological process (Falkowski & Raven, 2007), it allowed the development of aerobic life on Earth (Blankenship & Hartmann, 1998) by generating breathable oxygen in the atmosphere. Studies suggested the rise of oxygen (O_2) was directly caused by the evolution of oxygenic photosynthesis (Blankenship & Hartmann, 1998; Soo *et al.*, 2017). Photosynthesis is a biological process which converts light energy (via the Photosystem I and II coupled with the Calvin Benson-Bassham cycle) into chemical bond energy that is stored in the form of organic compounds (Falkowski & Raven, 2007). This process would not be possible without an enzyme called Ribulose-1,5-biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco), which is involved in the first major step of carbon fixation (see paragraph on Rubisco, below). The origin and nature of the earliest forms of photosynthesis remain unclear. Granick (1965) suggested that the first photosynthetic organisms had a primitive reaction centre based on the transport of electron/proton ($Fe^{2+}/FeOH^+$) through membranes. Other studies hypothesized an origin of photosynthesis derived from phototactic systems (when whole organisms move towards or away from a stimulus of light; Nisbet *et al.*, 1995) or ultraviolet protection systems (Mulikidjanian & Junge, 1997), but none of these hypotheses have been properly tested. However, Rubisco is known to be older than the Great Oxidation Event which occurred ~2.3 Gya (Tabita *et al.*, 2007; 2008, 2008b), and the increase of oxygen concentration in the atmosphere deeply affected the activity of Rubisco as it conducts both carboxylation and oxygenation reactions (the latter leading to photorespiration). The higher concentration of O_2 started to compete with CO_2 for the active sites, dramatically reducing photosynthetic efficiency.

At current atmospheric O_2 concentrations and 20°C, the oxygenase activity of Rubisco accounts for up to 25% of catalytic activity. In warm and dry conditions C_3 plants, which include most temperate crops (wheat, rice, pulses etc..), can lose up to 50% of their potential carbohydrate yield due to photorespiration % (Andersson, 2008; Bauwe *et al.*, 2010; Zhu *et al.*, 2010). Early algae perhaps excreted the photorespiratory ‘waste product’ as glycolate, and then developed the photorespiratory cycle to recapture some lost C and N (Colman *et al.*, 1974). Despite photorespiration, more than 90% of inorganic carbon converted into biomass is fixed by Rubisco. Globally, photoautotroph organisms fix $111-117 \times 10^{15}$ grams

of carbon per year, and around half of this global net primary production is aquatic (Behrenfeld *et al.*, 2001; Field *et al.*, 1998). Cyanobacteria and unicellular eukaryotic algae are the main actors in this process across all of the aquatic environments (Falkowski & Raven, 2007). Photosynthesis in aquatic and terrestrial environments follows the same basic catalytical processes. The development of aquatic photosynthesis probably coincided with a fall of atmospheric CO_2 from a concentration ~ 100 fold higher than in the present day atmosphere to approximately half of the present level (Berner, 2001). Additional physical constraints on aquatic photosynthesis have resulted in some differences from terrestrial photosynthesis. First of all, the diffusion of CO_2 is around 8,000 times slower in water than in the air with additional limitations imposed by surface boundary layers (Raven *et al.*, 1985; Raven & Richardson, 1986; Borges & Frankignoulle, 2002; Yamano *et al.*, 2015). In addition, the presence of carbon (C_i) is more often under other forms such as bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) or carbonate (CO_3^{2-}), depending on pH or alkalinity of the medium (Figure 1.4), which reduces significantly the concentration of CO_2 compared to the air ($400 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ of air vs $9\text{--}10 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ of water). In acid environments, the vast majority of C_i is in the CO_2 form, whereas in more alkaline water, C_i is mostly in the form of HCO_3^- (Moroney & Ynalvez, 2007). Finally, at lower ambient temperatures, O_2 is relatively less soluble than CO_2 .

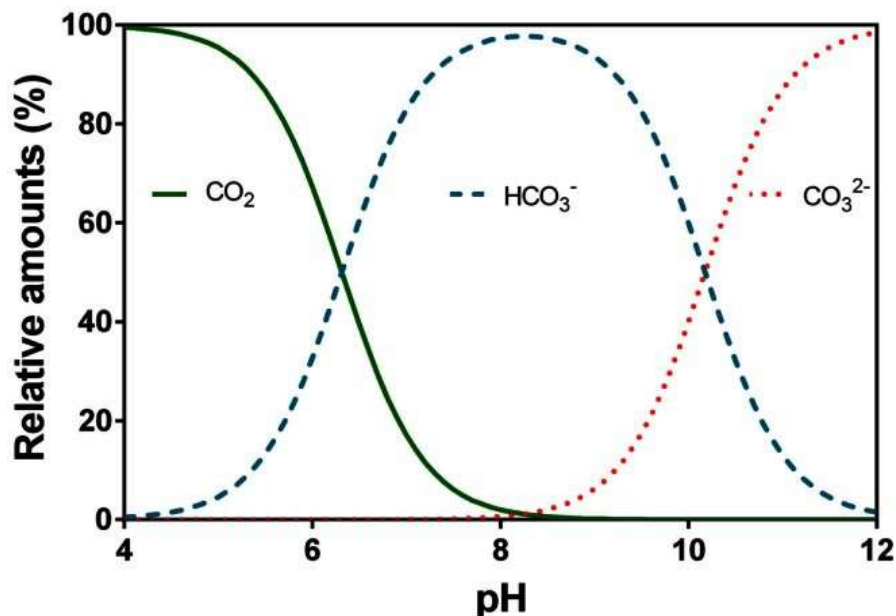


Figure 1.4 The aquatic bicarbonate buffer system, showing relative amounts (%) of Carbon dioxide (CO_2), bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) and carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) in water in function of pH (Pedersen *et al.*, 2013).

1.3 Carbon Concentrating Mechanism

Most aquatic photosynthetic organisms developed a biophysical Carbon-Concentration Mechanism (CCM) in order to overcome the aquatic limitations on carbon availability. These CCMs are primarily based around the active accumulation of inorganic carbon around Rubisco in order to saturate active sites with CO₂, thereby suppressing oxygenase activity and minimising photorespiration. This process concentrates C_i against a free energy gradient, thereby increasing the CO₂/O₂ ratio around Rubisco active sites and providing high capacity for net organic carbon production at low external C_i level (Renberg *et al.*, 2010). The high affinity for C_i of unicellular algae (Berry *et al.*, 1976) along with a lack of measurable photorespiration (Lloyd *et al.*, 1977) led to the hypothesis that algae do not rely on the simple diffusion of CO₂ for photosynthesis.

Three major ecological roles have been identified for CCMs (Beardall & Giordano, 2002): *i*) improvement of CO₂ supply and competitive advantages when inorganic carbon and/or CO₂ in the environment are present in low concentration, *ii*) improving resource use efficiency when nutrients (N, P, Fe or S) are in short supply and *iii*) energy dissipation.

Decreasing CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere due to the Great Oxygenation Event appeared to be the main reason why most of the aquatic photosynthetic organisms developed a CCM when the ratio between CO₂/O₂ shifted in favour of O₂. Interestingly, CCM probably appeared multiple times and in different lineages independently (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2008). However, precisely dating when CCM appeared is difficult, mainly due to the absence of fossils. Times with low CO₂ concentrations in the atmosphere have been clearly identified and five episodes (Figure 1.5) provided conditions where the development of CCM could have occurred: 2.4-2.1 Gya, 750, 650, 320-270 Mya and finally during the Pleistocene (last 2.4Mya) (Raven *et al.*, 2011, 2012). However, Griffiths *et al.* (2017) went one step further and based on the higher solubility of CO₂ in seawater compared to O₂, they took into account times when aqueous O₂ concentration overtook CO₂ concentration in seawater. Therefore, they estimated a potential origin of the CCM around the late Silurian/early Devonian (~420 Mya). However, a more conservative approach (Badger & Price, 2003) estimated an origin of CCM (cyanobacterial and eukaryotic CCM) following the “Devonian Drop” (~400Mya) and during the Carboniferous (~360 Mya). The lack of direct evidences (Raven *et al.*, 2012) and the absence of more powerful tools than the molecular clock make the appearance of CCM difficult to estimate. Works on diatoms and haptophytes showed (Young *et al.*, 2012) episodes of positive selection on Rubisco (rbcL) during low CO₂ episodes (between 1 and 0.5 Gya) and could be correlated with the origin of CCM.

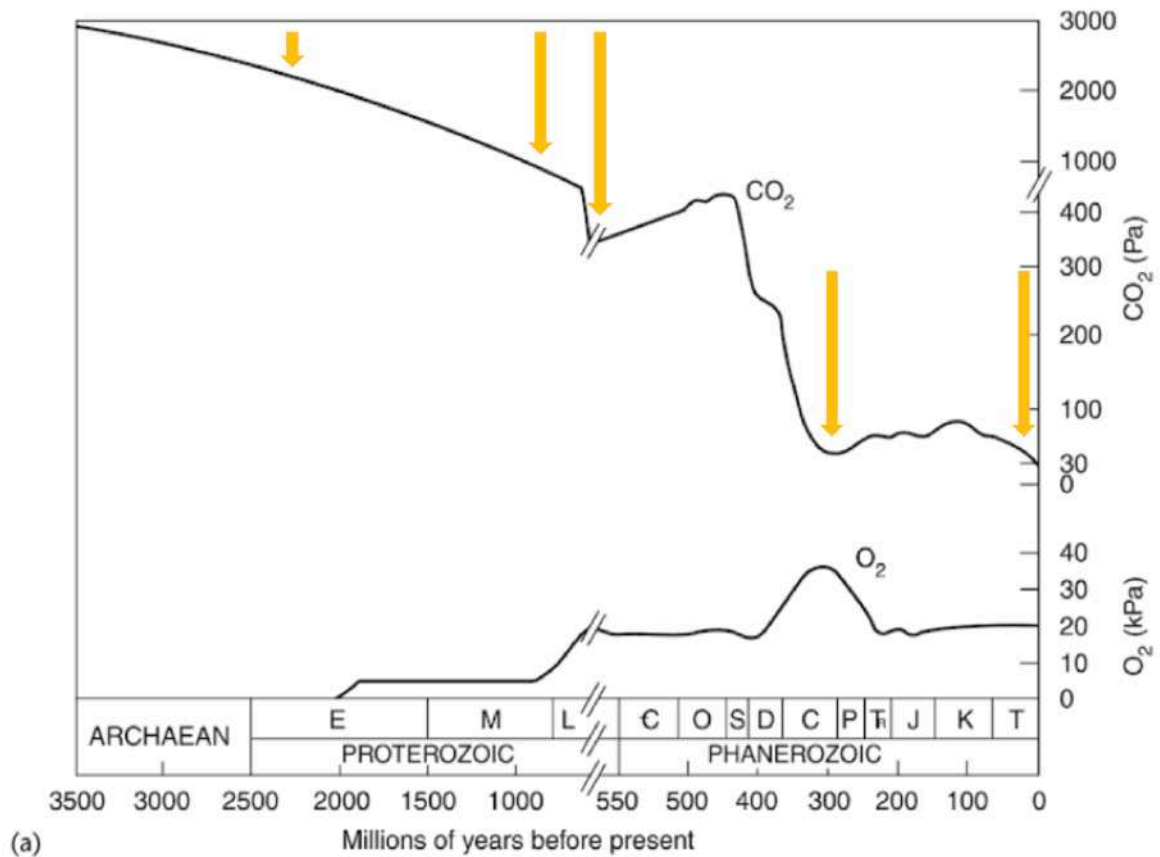


Figure 1.5 Reconstruction of variations in the partial pressures of CO₂ and O₂ in the atmosphere through geological time from Falkowski & Raven (2013). Episodes of low CO₂ conditions providing conditions for the development of CCM are indicated with a yellow arrow.

In unicellular organisms, the induction of CCMs is dependent on numerous ecological imperatives (Maberly & Gontero, 2017). Among them, the four main factors are: availability of inorganic carbon and light, the temperature and any nutrient limitations (Beardall & Giordano, 2002). Physiological evidence for Ci uptake and CCM expression have been shown multiple times with different methods in the green algae and the model organism *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. First of all by measuring the whole-cell photosynthesis rates (oxygen evolution, Badger *et al.*, 1980; Meyer *et al.*, 2012; Mitchell *et al.*, 2014) but also by direct measurement of Ci uptake and Ci concentration inside the cell (Moroney & Tolbert, 1985; Sültemeyer *et al.*, 1989, 1991; Asamiziu *et al.*, 2000). Further studies, including mutants grown in low (0.04% CO₂; air level) and high CO₂ (5% CO₂) conditions gave us more insight on the underlying mechanisms allowing Ci uptake (Spalding *et al.*, 1983; Vance & Spalding, 2005; Wang & Spalding, 2006). Such observations have also been

described in other eukaryotes such as *Chlorella vulgaris* (Shiraiwa & Miyachi, 1985), *Chlorella emersonii* (Beardall *et al.*, 1982) or in diatoms (Burkhart *et al.*, 2001) but also in cyanobacteria (Bacteria; Badger & Gallagher, 1987). Light availability also appeared to be a key component of CCM induction. Recent work (Mitchell *et al.*, 2014) showed that algal CCM are induced during the dark to light transition in synchronised cells in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. In addition, works on *Chlorella vulgaris*, *Anabaena variabilis* or *Dunaliella tertiolecta* showed that species when grown under light-limited conditions showed reduce affinity for Ci (Shiraiwa & Miyachi, 1983; Beardall, 1991; Young & Beardall, 2005) without complete repression of CCM capacity.

Interestingly, improving photosynthesis by locally concentrating CO_2 is an adaptation which occurred multiple times under different forms in the history of life (Figure 1.6). There are two forms of biophysical CCMs, which are characterised as a simple compartment within the chloroplast or in cyanobacterial cell. Carboxysomes are found in cyanobacteria, whilst pyrenoids are at the heart of most algal CCMs. The presence of a compartment has the advantage of maintaining a high CO_2 : bicarbonate concentration in a very localized part of the chloroplast, saturating Rubisco and protecting CO_2 from leakage. Later on, land plants developed: Crassulacean Acid Metabolism (CAM) and C_4 metabolism, biochemical CCMs analogous to the biophysical CCM. These two metabolisms use two different strategies to improve photosynthesis efficiency. In C_4 metabolism Rubisco is spatially partitioned from the initial PEP carboxylation, whilst in CAM Rubisco is temporally separated (Figure 1.6). Most of the aquatic photosynthetic organisms developed a biophysical CCM, whilst hornworts are the only land plants with a pyrenoid-based CCM (Vaughn *et al.*, 1990; Villareal & Renner, 2012). Cyanobacteria have always carboxysomes associated with their CCM, but not all algae have a pyrenoid. The mechanism and the molecular physiology of the cyanobacterial CCM and associated carboxysome structures are better understood than the algal CCM components mainly due the ease of working with a prokaryotic system (Espie & Kimber, 2011; Price, 2011) compared to the algal CCM, despite a greater interest in the model green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*.

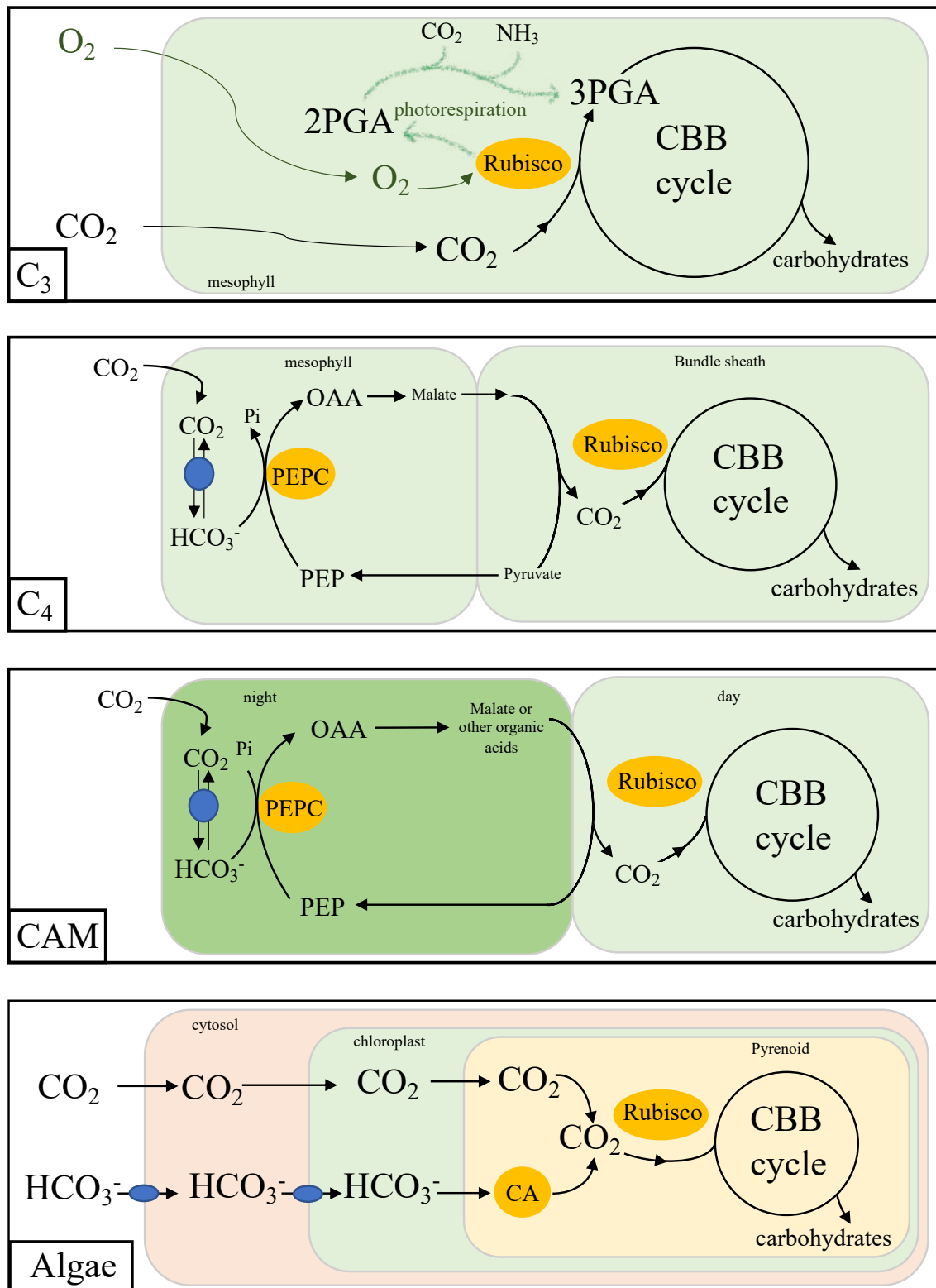


Figure 1.6 The four different photosynthesis pathways found in Viridiplantae. The biophysical CCM found in algae is characterised in the bottom square and aims to maintain a high bicarbonate concentration in a very localized part of the chloroplast saturated in Rubisco and where bicarbonate is protected from any leakage. The carboxysome found in cyanobacteria follows the same principle except that cyanobacteria have no chloroplasts. The two biochemical CCMs found in land plants (C₄ and CAM) are described in the two middle squares.

1.4 The pyrenoid, the algal biophysical CCM

The first observation of a pyrenoid dates back to the middle of the 18th century (drawing of *Conferva jugalis*, now *Spirogyra*, in *Flora Danica*, Müller) but the word «pyrenoid» started to be used by Schmitz in 1882. A pyrenoid can generally be visualised as a microcompartment with a dense aggregation of Rubisco, and usually bisected by thylakoid membranes (Figures 1.7-8). Pyrenoids are not delineated by a specific membrane, but some form of starch sheath may provide additional demarcation. Although the presence of a pyrenoid is the marker of the presence of CCM, not all the eukaryotic algae with a CCM have a pyrenoid. The most striking example is the comparison between the *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* genera, that will be detailed further in this study. Phylogenetically close to each other, the genus *Chloromonas* include species with neither a pyrenoid nor a CCM (*Chloromonas clathrata*), but also species without pyrenoid but with a CCM (*Chloromonas serbinowii*, Morita *et al.*, 1998, 1999). However, the algal pyrenoid is a widespread trait found in different type of algae from unicellular, colonial to filamentous species but coastal algae are generally pyrenoid less (at the exception of *Ulva*). Precisely estimating the contribution of the pyrenoid to the global net primary production is difficult because it requires a good estimation of species abundance.

Pyrenoids can be defined as a Rubisco containing micro-compartment within the algal chloroplast that is an integral component of the CCM. When fully induced, the algal CCM involves 3 main components: *i*) a pyrenoid in the chloroplast, which is the site of Ci accumulation and Rubisco aggregation, characterised by a Rubisco matrix traversed by a network of thylakoid tubules, which in most cases is surrounded by a starch sheath (Engel *et al.*, 2015). *ii*) inorganic transporters, which actively transport Ci into the cell and *iii*) conversion of accumulated Ci to CO_2 by carbonic anhydrase activity (CA), (Moroney & Ynalvez, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2015; Mackinder *et al.*, 2017).

Pyrenoids and other biochemical CCMs are likely to be the result of convergent evolution meaning that they independently appeared multiple times in different lineages, similarly to the 62 independent origin of C_4 metabolism (Sage *et al.*, 2011). In addition, hornwort pyrenoids have been lost at least five times during the last 100 million years (Villareal & Renner, 2012) supporting the theory that CCMs are not inherited from a single common ancestor. It is difficult to estimate when the pyrenoid appeared for the first time (See paragraph CCM) but is probably linked to the limited CO_2 concentrations and diffusive supply in aquatic environments. Badger & Price (2003) suggested that the development of

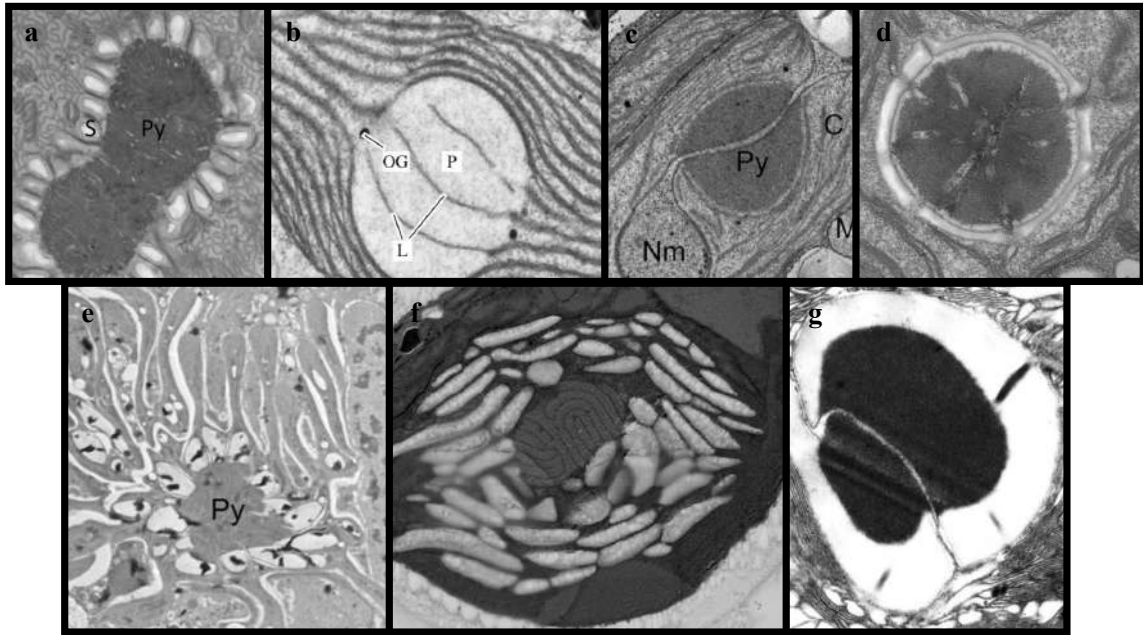


Figure 1.7 Morphological diversity of microalgal pyrenoid matrix and associated network of thylakoid membranes. **a.** Pyrenoid of *Zygnema* sp. (Zygnemataceae; Holzinger *et al.*, 2018). **b.** Pyrenoid of *Aulacoseira baicalensis* (Diatom, Bedoshvili *et al.*, 2009). **c.** Pyrenoid of *Viridiuvalis adhaerens* (Chlorarachniophyte, Shiratori *et al.*, 2017). **d.** Pyrenoid of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlamydomonaceae, courtesy Dr. Moritz Meyer). **e.** Pyrenoid of *Penium margaritaceum* (Desmidiaceae, Raimundo *et al.*, 2018). **f.** Pyrenoid of *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* (Chlorokybaceae). **g.** Pyrenoid of *Rhizoclonium ramosum* (Cladophorales, Zhao *et al.*, 2016). Py/P= pyrenoid, S= Starch sheath, OG= osmiophilic globules, L= lamella, Nm= nucleomorph, C= chloroplast, M= mitochondrial profile.

pyrenoids in algal lineages with a primary chloroplast occurred before the Carboniferous (359.2 to 299 Mya). Such estimation is also supported by Griffiths *et al.* (2017; see previous paragraph) and by Raven *et al.* (2017). Using a different approach, Raven *et al.* (2017) determined the CO₂ concentration needed to saturate photosynthesis using diffusive CO₂ supply alone and looked for similar conditions in the history of Earth. This estimated period also matches the results found in Griffiths *et al.* (2017). The multiple evolution of the pyrenoid probably explains why pyrenoids are so diverse, with different shapes and morphologies. Single or multiple pyrenoids can be found per cell (Figure 1.7). They are highly variable both across species and have plastic responses to a change in growth conditions. Pyrenoids can be embedded within the chloroplast (Figure 1.7) or projected from a bulge at the inner face of the chloroplast. The simplest pyrenoids are electron-dense proteinaceous aggregates of Rubisco without any external structures («naked pyrenoid», e.g.

Rhodella), but these are relatively rare. More common are pyrenoid matrices traversed by one or multiple membranes derived from thylakoids, typically found in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, the green alga adopted as a study model, where the trans-pyrenoidal membranes form a stellar knot at the heart of the pyrenoid (Figure 1.8A). In recent years *Chlamydomonas* has been extensively used to develop new tools to understand pyrenoid structure and function.

Successive discoveries have allowed the structure of the pyrenoid to be defined (Figure 1.8A): the localisation of the pyrenoid at the base of the chloroplast, the dense matrix of Rubisco and the starch plates were revealed by electron microscopy (Ohad *et al.*, 1967; Goodenough & Levine, 1970; Goodenough, 1970). Inorganic pumps such as LCI1 (Low CO₂ inducible membrane protein 1; Yamano *et al.*, 2015), HLA3 (plasma membrane localized ABC-type bicarbonate transporter; Ohnishi *et al.*, 2010) and LCIA (chloroplast envelope anion channel; Duanmu *et al.*, 2009) have been identified which facilitate the transport of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) across the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope and CA convert bicarbonate to CO₂. The network of thylakoids anchors Rubisco to the centre of the pyrenoid and minitubules allow diffusive exchange of carboxylation substrates. Immunolocalization with anti-Rubisco antibody determined that 99% of Rubisco is aggregated into the pyrenoid when CCM is fully induced (low CO₂ conditions) (Lacoste-Royal & Gibbs, 1987; Süß *et al.*, 1995) but also showed the presence of Rubisco activase (RCA1), a Rubisco chaperone which releases tightly bound inhibitors from the catalytic sites of Rubisco (Mckay & Gibbs, 1991; Parry *et al.*, 2008). Mackinder *et al.* (2016), using mass spectrometry of isolated pyrenoids induced in low CO₂ conditions, revealed the presence of another protein in the pyrenoid: a putative linker EPYC1, which allows a normal pyrenoid size and morphology and binds to Rubisco. More recently, two studies (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2017; Mackinder *et al.*, 2017) showed that the Rubisco-EPYC1 complex acts as a fluid matrix and also that during cell division the pyrenoid divides equally and that in some cases pyrenoid are formed *de novo*. Finally, up to 89 different proteins are implicated in the *Chlamydomonas* pyrenoid (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016; Zhan *et al.*, 2018).

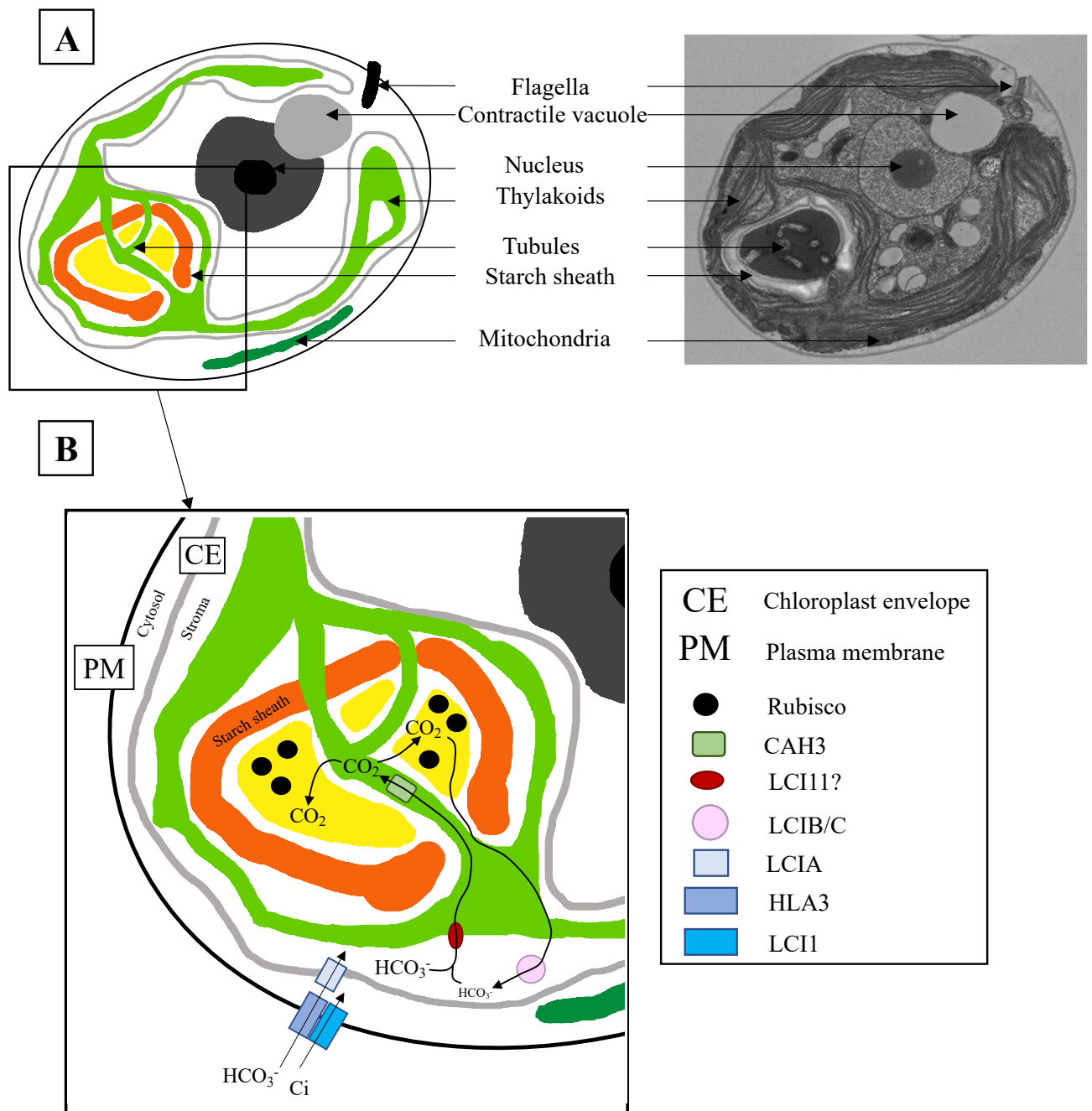


Figure 1.8 **A.** Schematic and transmission electron micrograph of wild type *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* grown under low CO₂ conditions (0.04% CO₂). Image courtesy of Dr. Moritz Meyer. **B.** Model of the algal CCM and its mechanism (adapted from Meyer & Griffiths, 2015). CO₂ crosses both the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope by simple diffusion. Two carbon pumps allow the transport of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) through the two different membranes via HLA3 and LCI1 and then via LCIA. Bicarbonate is converted to CO₂ via the carbonic anhydrases CAH3 located inside the lumen of the thylakoids tubules (green). Finally, CO₂ is packed in the centre of the pyrenoid and prevented from leaking with the LCIB/C protein complexes.

1.5 Rubisco: the most abundant enzyme on Earth

Ribulose-1,5-biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (Rubisco) is the enzyme of photosynthesis catalysing the first major step of carbon fixation. Rubisco is the most abundant enzyme on Earth (Ellis, 1979; Bar-On & Milo, 2019), indeed it has been estimated that there is 5 kg of Rubisco for every person on Earth (Philips & Milo, 2009). The abundance of photosynthetic organisms on Earth, but most importantly Rubisco inefficiency can explain such values. Despite perhaps 3.6 billion years of evolution, Rubisco still exhibits a slow catalytic rate and a low affinity for atmospheric CO₂. In addition, Rubisco has this dual role of carboxylase and oxygenase, which slows down the photosynthetic process and leads to a competition for the active sites. Consequently, land plants allocate as much as 50% of their leaf nitrogen to Rubisco. However, such statement has been recently challenged with Rubisco's catalytic performance comparison with other chemically related enzymes (Bathellier *et al.*, 2018). This study, supported by other observations made by Cummins *et al.* (2018), not only shows that Rubisco is not especially slow, but also pushes us to reassess the assumptions and knowledges we have on Rubisco.

Table 1.1 Summary of the different Rubisco forms and structures described in the literature.

Rubisco forms	Rubisco structure	Organisms
I	L ₈ S ₈	Cyanobacteria, most of eukaryotic algae and Embryophytes
II	(L ₂) ₁₋₈	Prokaryotes, dinoflagellates
III	(L ₂) ₅	Archaea
IV (Rubisco-like Protein)	L ₂	Proteobacteria, archaea (<i>e.g. Chlorobium tepidum</i> ; <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , Tabita <i>et al.</i> , 2007).

Classically, Rubisco is composed of both large (~55-kDa; LSU) and small (15-kDa; SSU) subunits to form a hexadecameric protein structure (Figure 1.9B). LSUs form dimers and include the active sites. However, four different Rubisco structural forms (I, II, III and IV) have evolved (Table 1.1; Tabita, 1999; Tabita *et al.*, 2007). The number of LSU and SSU is the main, but not only, difference between the different forms. Form IV or Rubisco-like Protein, initially thought to be another version of Form III, is mainly found in proteobacteria, archaea and in some algae such as *Chlorobium tepidum* (phototrophic bacterium) or *Bacillus*

subtilis (Tabita *et al.*, 2007). It only consists of a dimer of LSUs (L_2 structure) but is incapable of catalysing RuBP CO_2 fixation because of the absence of many essential active sites (Hanson & Tabita, 2001; Tabita *et al.*, 2008a). Form III is only found in archaea and is made of five LSU dimers [$(L_2)_5$ structure] (Maeda *et al.*, 1999) and probably represents the most ancient form of the enzyme. Interestingly, despite the absence of small subunits, the crystal structure of the form III Rubisco in the methanogenic archaeon *Methanococcoides burtonii* ($(L_2)_5$) revealed a 29 amino acids insertion near the C-terminus, which folds as a separate domain in the structure. Located in a similar position to the SSUs in L_8S_8 Rubisco, such insertions would play a role in the assembly process and therefore would be an inbuilt SSU mimic that concentrate L_2 dimers (Gunn *et al.*, 2017). Form II is mainly found in some prokaryotes and dinoflagellates (Morse *et al.*, 1995; Tabita, 1999; Whitney & Andrews, 1998) and is made of multiple dimers (from 2 to 8). Finally, Form I of Rubisco is the most widespread and the most abundant form. Present in all cyanobacteria, in most of the eukaryotic algae and all the Embryophytes. It is characterized by a typical L_8S_8 structure: 8 LSUs forming 4 dimers capped by 8 (2 sets of 4) SSUs (Figure 1.9B). In plants, Rubisco biogenesis requires a number of assembly chaperones. Folding of LSUs are mediated by cylindrical a chloroplast chaperonin Cpn60 and a cofactor Cpn20, whilst the final assembly of the L_8S_8 complex, with the addition of the SSUs, includes chaperones such RbcX, Rubisco accumulation factors 1 (Raf11) and 2 (Raf2) and a Bundle sheath defective 2 (BSD2) (Spreitzer & Salvucci, 2002; Wilson & Hayer-Hartl, 2018). In addition, a fully functioning Rubisco molecule is highly dependent on the presence of Rubisco activase. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, Rubisco activase is one the four proteins found at the heart of the pyrenoid. It has two main roles: *i*) activates Rubisco by facilitating carbamylation of Rubisco in the presence of RuBP but also *ii*) relieving inhibition by tight binding inhibitors (Salvucci & Ogren, 1996).

However, four subclasses of Form I Rubisco have been described (Tabita *et al.*, 2008). Form IA and IB are found in the green lineage (Cyanobacteria and Viridiplantae) whereas Forms IC and ID are found in the red lineage which includes red algae, Stramenopiles, Haptophyta and Cryptophyta. Form IA and IB have SSUs nuclear encoded whereas both LSUs and SSUs are located in a single operon on the chloroplast genome in the forms IC and ID. Interestingly, pyrenoids are exclusively associated to Form I of Rubisco and Form II in dinoflagellates. In addition, Form I and II large subunits only share 30 % sequence identity (Tabita, 1999). Nowadays, the typical L_8S_8 structure has been crystallised multiple times (Taylor *et al.*, 2001; Andersson & Backlund, 2008).

The origin of Rubisco is still unclear. It appears clear that the history of Form I Rubisco is linked to the evolution of oxygenic photosynthesis (Andersson & Backlund, 2008). Studies suggested that Rubisco evolved before the Great Oxygenation Event without having any constraints by O₂ as explained above. The increase of O₂ concentration in the atmosphere following the Oxygenation Event forced Rubisco to learn how to discriminate CO₂ from O₂. The new competition for the active sites appears to be the origin of Rubisco inefficiency. Tawfik *et al.* (2014) showed that the cost of such competition turned Rubisco to reduce its catalytic rate but also to become more specialist and therefore having a slower catalysis.

However from what did Rubisco arise? Three main hypotheses have been suggested: *i*) Rubisco evolved from a non CO₂ fixing ancestor (Rubisco-like Protein) *ii*) Rubisco evolved in a non-autotrophic context *iii*) Rubisco evolved from a simple enzyme complex (Erb & Zarzycki, 2018).

Despite an almost complete similarity between the different Form I Rubiscos, natural variations in kinetic properties have been highlighted between photosynthetic organisms (Jordan & Ogren, 1981). Kinetic properties of Rubisco can be defined by different parameters. The ability of Rubisco to discriminate O₂ from CO₂ is called specificity factor (Ω) and gives the relative rate of carboxylation to oxygenation. Ω is defined by the equation:

$$\text{Equation 1} \quad \Omega = \frac{V_c \cdot K_o}{V_o \cdot K_c}$$

Where V_c and V_o are the maximum velocities for carboxylation and oxygenation and K_c and K_o are the relative Michaelis-Menten constants for CO₂ and O₂ respectively. Rubisco activity and specificity are tightly linked to each other (Tcherkez *et al.*, 2006; Savir *et al.*, 2010; Studer *et al.*, 2014; Shih *et al.*, 2016;). Specificity factor measurements revealed a general increase of the specificity from cyanobacteria to C₃ plants (Cyanobacteria < green algae < C₄ < C₃). Cyanobacteria have a low specificity (Ω), with low values (around 40; Jordan & Ogren, 1981) and green algae between 59 and 64 whereas C₃ and C₄ metabolisms exhibit higher Ω with higher values (around 78 for C₄ plants and mid-80 for C₃ plants). The absence of a biophysical CCM in C₃ plants is correlated with high Ω values, whereas the presence of CCMs in C₄ and CAM plants shifts Ω to lower values. Furthermore, Meyer & Griffiths (2013) but also Tortell (2000) and Young *et al.* (2012) suggested that the selection on V_c in RuBisCO has been relaxed due to the saturating CO₂ environment that the CCM provided for such a long period of time (C₄ < green algae < cyanobacteria). This hypothesis could

explain why there are differences in terms of affinity and specificity for CO₂ between cyanobacteria and land plants (the more recent organisms).

1.6 The small subunit of Rubisco, a neglected subunit.

Although Rubisco is probably one of the most studied enzymes on Earth, the small subunit of Rubisco has often been neglected. Despite being among the first plant nuclear genes cloned and sequenced for expression (Dean *et al.*, 1989), the small subunit remains poorly characterised compared to *rbcL*. With thousands of sequences on GenBank (Benson *et al.*, 2012), *rbcL* is often used, among other markers, for phylogeny reconstructions. Chloroplast encoded, *rbcL* is indeed more conserved than the shorter *RbcS*. Two main reasons can explain the lack of interest for the small subunit. First of all, studies showed that Rubisco was perfectly able to fulfil its role of enzyme without small subunit (Andrew, 1988; Lee & Tabita, 1990). Secondly, the absence of a small subunit in Form III of Rubisco confirms that SSUs are not essential in photosynthesis.

If not essential in photosynthesis, where do SSUs come from and what do they look like? With 4 SSUs located on each side of the Rubisco molecule, SSUs are made of four β -strands (A-D) and two α -helices (Figure 1.9A). The β -strands A and B delimit the β A- β B loop, which form the «central solvent» channel with the three others β -loops of the three other small subunits on each side of Rubisco. The diameter of the central solvent channel is strongly linked to the loop length (Karkehabadi *et al.*, 2005; Andersson & Backlund, 2008; van Lun *et al.*, 2011). The β A- β B loop length is one of the most variable features between Rubisco enzymes (Esquivel *et al.*, 2013). Different loop lengths can be observed across the different photosynthetic organisms. Prokaryotes and non-green algae have a loop length 10 residues long whereas higher plants have a loop length 22 residues long (Figure 1.9B,C). Green algae have the longest known loop with 28 residues in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Spreitzer, 2003). Comparison of the two Rubisco crystallography structures between *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Taylor *et al.*, 2001; PDB number: 1GK8) and *Spinacia oleracea* (Spinach, Taylor & Andersson, 1997; PDB number: 1RCX) gives the most striking example of this loop length variation (Figure 1.9B,C). With loop length 5 amino acids longer, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* shows a very narrow channel whereas the channel of *Spinacia oleracea* is significantly wider (Figure 1.9B). There are several hypotheses regarding the origin of the SSUs. Comparisons of cyanobacteria with

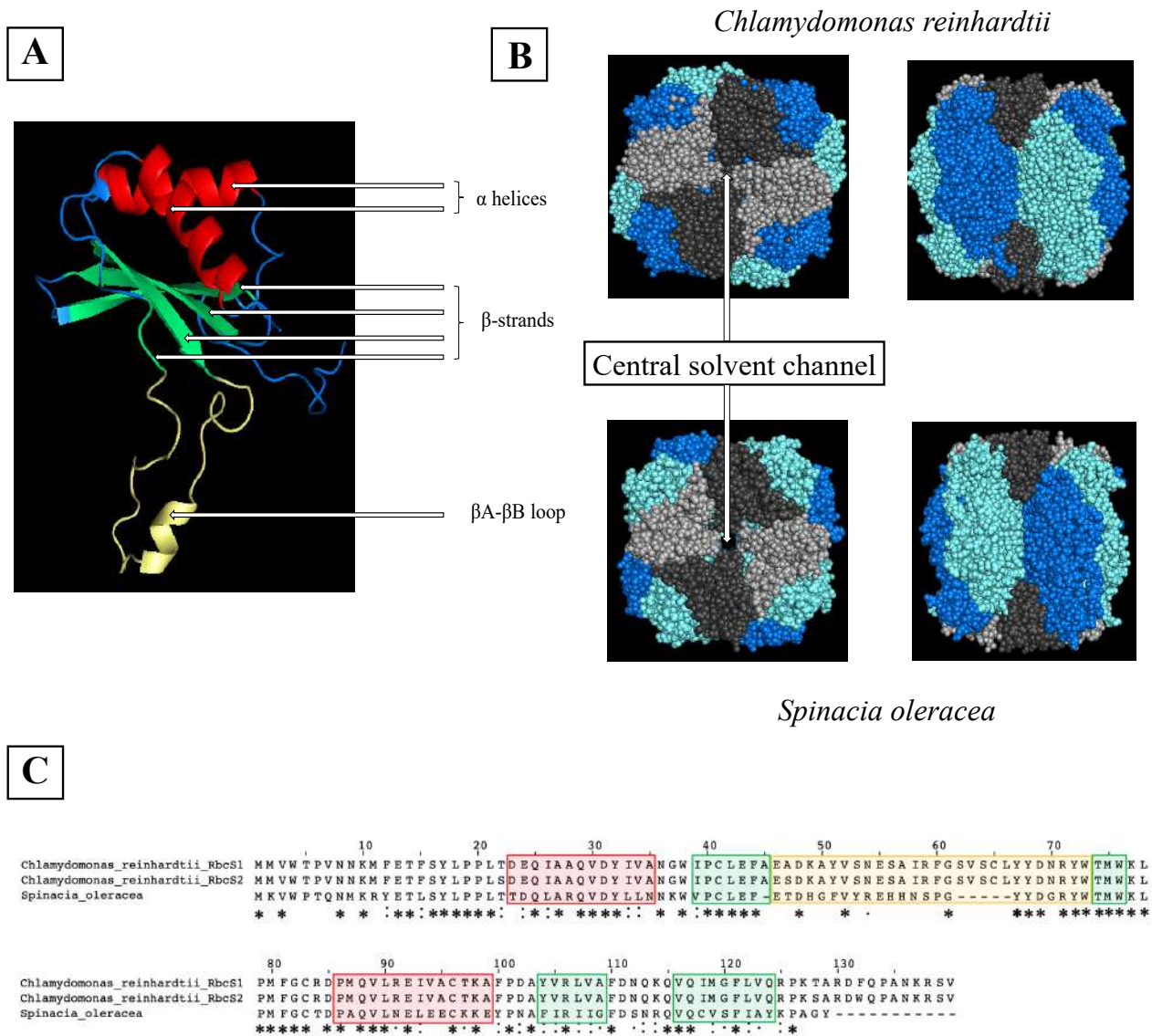


Figure 1.9 The secondary structure of the small subunit of Rubisco and its β A- β B loop length variation between *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and *Spinacia oleracea*. **A.** 3D structure of the small subunit of Rubisco in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* obtained with PyMOL (DeLano, 2002). The two surface-exposed α -helices A and B coloured in red. The four β -strands are represented by the green arrows. The β A- β B loop is coloured in yellow and includes a short α -helix and forms the central solvent channel with the three other loops of the three other small subunits. **B.** Crystallography structures of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (top) and *Spinacia oleracea* (bottom). LSUs are coloured in dark and light blue and SSUs in dark and light grey. The change of diameter of the central solvent channel is easily observable. *Spinacia oleracea* exhibits a large channel (bottom left figure) whereas *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* shows a very narrow channel (top left figure). **C.** Alignments of the two copies of *RbcS* in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and *Spinacia oleracea*. The alignment shows that the diameter of the solvent channel varies due to the absence of 5 amino acids in *Spinacia oleracea* (from 62th to 66th sites: Serine-Valine-Serine-Cysteine-Leucine in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*). * indicates positions which have a single fully conserved residues; «:» indicates a site belonging to group exhibiting strong similarity (strong score >0.5); «.» indicates sites belonging to a group from weak similarity (weak score =<0.5).

green algae highlighted sequence similarities between SSU and a possible carboxysomal protein (ccmM gene product) in *Synechococcus* (Price *et al.*, 1993). This observation led to the hypothesis that SSUs may have evolved from a protein involved in assembling carboxysomes (Kaplan & Reinhold, 1999). In addition, *RbcS* undertook a transfer from the chloroplastic to the nuclear genome. The reason why such transfers occur are probably multifactorial (Martin & Herrmann, 1998). Retaining genes in organelles permits the regulation of its expression by the reduction-oxidation (chemical reaction in which the oxidation states of atoms are changed) state of its gene products (CoRR hypothesis; Allen & Raven, 1996; Allen, 2017). Another hypothesis suggested that all the genes have the potential to be expressed in the nucleus but that the resulting proteins would be too difficult to be imported across the membranes surrounding plastids (Palmer, 1997; Race *et al.*, 2000) whereas Doolittle (1998) hypothesised that the use of base or codon usage might prevent nuclear expression of some organellar genes, locking them in chloroplasts (Doolittle, 1998; Race *et al.*, 1999). However, relocating genes to the nucleus offers multiple advantages. First of all, it offers economy of resources because a cell with only one genetic system needs fewer genes and resources devoted to protein synthesis. Secondly, gene regulation on the nuclear genome increases the rate of recombination and thus improves the capacity of the organisms to delete all the deleterious mutations. However, the higher rate of recombination of the nuclear genome means that genes are more likely to undergo duplication events, explaining why *RbcS* is now part of a gene family. *RbcS* exists in multiple copies in several organisms. It is encoded 22 times in wheat (Sasanuma, 2001) and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* has 2 copies (*RbcS1* and *RbcS2*; Goldschmidt-Clermont & Rahire, 1986) which differ by only 4 amino acids. The presence of multiple copies suggests that selection did not favour any sequences in particular and raise the possibility that all the sequences have their own functions (Spreitzer, 2003).

It is now clear that SSUs have several roles. First of all, many studies on hybrids (Read *et al.*, 1992; Kanevski *et al.*, 1999), chimeric (Spreitzer *et al.*, 2005; Karkehabadi *et al.*, 2005) and mutant SSU enzymes (Kostov *et al.*, 1997; Du *et al.*, 2000; Spreitzer *et al.*, 2001; Genkov *et al.*, 2006;) showed that SSUs could strongly influence both carboxylation catalytic efficiency and Ω . However, how SSUs influence these parameters is still not fully understood as SSU residues are not in direct contact with the active sites. Genkov and Spreitzer (2009) with a mutagenesis approach showed that none of the conserved SSU residues were essential for Rubisco assembly nor function but that many of these residues

affected LSUs catalytic efficiency (identified via so-called suppressor deletions). However, another feature within SSUs appeared to play not only a role in the Rubisco kinetic variation among organisms with a L₈S₈ Rubisco, but also in stabilizing the Rubisco holoenzyme. Understanding the role of the central solvent channel in regulating Rubisco activity has been a recurrent question. The β A- β B loop is known to be important as an assembly domain (Du *et al.*, 2000; Flachmann & Bohnert, 1992). In swapping the very conserved Arg53 with a glutamic acid, Flachmann and Bohnert blocked the assembly of pea SSU with LSU in the chloroplast proving that the β A- β B loop was essential for the holoenzyme assembly. The influence of the loop on Rubisco activity and Ω was demonstrated with direct mutagenesis experiments in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Spreitzer *et al.*, 2001) but also in *Synechococcus* (Wasmann *et al.*, 1989). The conclusions made by these two studies highlighted the importance of the interface between SSUs and LSUs at the entrance of the central solvent channel, which would contribute significantly to the differences in catalytic properties between algal and land plant enzymes. Despite such studies, the exact role of the channel is still not understood. More recently, the central solvent channel has been thought to partition CO₂ and O₂ to the Rubisco active sites (Esquivel *et al.*, 2013).

More than just influencing the Rubisco kinetic properties, SSUs have been shown to play a role in regulating Rubisco aggregations and formation of the algal pyrenoid (Genkov *et al.*, 2010; Meyer *et al.*, 2012). With a mutagenesis approach, Meyer *et al.*, (2012) showed that *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* mutant with a native LSU and higher plant SSU (known not to have CCM) lost its pyrenoid. Even more than proving that SSUs were important in the pyrenoid occurrence, this showed that the two SSU α -helices were sufficient and necessary for pyrenoid formation. However, the specific residues causing this recruitment and the potential interactions with other partners have not been identified.

1.7 Aims and hypotheses of this study

The work done in Griffiths laboratory in the last 20 years has mainly focused on trying to identify the components that explain pyrenoid occurrence. Understanding the pyrenoid occurrence has only been possible by extensive research on the green algal model, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Generally, aquatic photosynthesis is the result of pyrenoid occurrence, CCM activity, Rubisco and Rubisco kinetics, which are therefore intrinsically

linked to each other. However, no study to date have tried to combine these different components in a broader context such as the green algae lineage.

In addition, some specific questions remain unanswered. Firstly, following Meyer's work (2012) the residues of the two SSU α -helices involved in pyrenoid occurrence have still not been identified. Secondly, the interactions between Rubisco structure, occurrence of the pyrenoid and Rubisco kinetics have never been fully characterised across chlorophytes and streptophyte algae. In particular, the way Rubisco kinetic properties vary across the ancestral green algae to land plants has not been investigated, and selective pressures on *RbcS* have never been tested. The green algae lineage provides an incredible opportunity to understand CCM and pyrenoid expression in a phylogenetic context since there are natural differences in CCMs among green alga. As previously explained (see paragraph "Pyrenoid" above), among green algae, most of organisms have been shown to express a CCM associated with a pyrenoid, but some have only a CCM and others neither a CCM nor pyrenoid. Such observations raised questions such as: What are the genetic differences between these three states? Does CCM expression link to an interactions between LSUs and SSUs?

Following these different observations, the work completed for this study aimed to give us more insight in our understanding of the evolution of green algae but also on the photosynthetic processes during the transition to terrestrial plants.

Specifically, following this **General Introduction**, a method chapter and four data chapters will be developed as follows:

Chapter 2 describes all the technical and experimental methods used in this dissertation.

Chapter 3 addresses the possible interactions between Rubisco SSU structure and phylogeny, and the occurrence of any reported CCM or pyrenoid across the green algae lineage but also evaluates the selective pressure on *RbcS*.

Chapter 4 defines the co-evolution between Rubisco kinetics and Carbon Concentrating Mechanisms (CCM) across chlorophytes and streptophyte algae through the measurement of key Rubisco kinetic properties and characterization of the CCM for selected members of the streptophyte algae.

Chapter 5 explores the physiological diversity of CCMs in more detail through the two genera *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* (5 species in total) and sets out how these two genera can be good model organisms to further our understanding of the pyrenoid occurrence.

Chapter 6 develops the findings of Chapter 5 through a comparative analysis of whole genome sequences of the 5 species in order to characterise the genetic components of CCM expression.

Finally, the **General Discussion** combines and draws together the different findings of these chapters in order to summarise the new insights on the evolution of the small subunit of Rubisco interactions with CCM expression, Rubisco kinetics and Rubisco structure.

Chapter 2: Materials & Methods

2.1 Physiological analyses

2.1.1 Growth of algae strains

Six streptophyte algae representing the main streptophytes lineages (Appendix 1) were ordered from the Culture Collection of Algae at Göttingen (Table 2.1,2) (*Chlorokybus atmophyticus*: SAG 34.98 (Chlorokybophyceae), *Klebsormidium subtile*: SAG 384-1 (Klebsormidiophyceae), *Cosmarium subtumidum*: SAG 612-12 and *Onychonema laeve*: SAG 1.93 (Desmidiaceae), *Spirogyra* sp.: SAG 170.8 and *Coleochaete scutata*: SAG 110.8). The wild-type *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* strain was kindly provided by Dr. Cindy Chan (Chan, 2018; strain CC-4533, Li *et al.*, 2016). The *Chlamydomonas* strains: *Chlamydomonas augustae* and *Chlamydomonas mutabilis* were ordered from the Culture Collection of algae at The University of Texas at Austin (UTEX; Table 2.1) (UTEX LB 1969 and UTEX 578 respectively). All the *Chloromonas* strains were also ordered from UTEX (Table 2.1): *Chloromonas serbinowii* (UTEX LB 0492), *Chloromonas clathrata* (UTEX LB 1970) and *Chloromonas rosae* (UTEX B 1337).

All the strains were maintained both on solid and in liquid media. All the media were prepared following the algae collection recommendations (Table 2.1, Appendices 2 to 4) except for *Chl. reinhardtii* which was maintained in TAP medium (pH 7.4). For the experiments, which required CCM induction and CCM measurements, strains were directly transferred from liquid media to Tris-phosphate (TP; pH 7.4) medium and bubbled with air from a compressed gas cylinder under two conditions. Induction of CCM was performed by switching gas supply of 5% (v/v) CO₂ in air to ambient air supply (0.04% v/v CO₂).

One litre of TAP medium was prepared with 1 ml of Hutner's trace elements (Hutner *et al.*, 1950), 10 ml 2M Tris stock (121.1g Tris Base, 75 ml concentrated HCl made up to 500ml), 10ml phosphate stock (7.17g K₂HPO₄, 3.63g KH₂PO₄ made up to 500 ml), 10 mL of 1 M acetate stock (27.2g NaAc.3H₂O made up to 1L), 40 ml of Beijerinck's Solution (8g NH₄Cl, 1g CaCl₂.2H₂O, 2g MgSO₄.7H₂O made up to 1L) and made up to 1L with DIW. TP medium consisted of TAP medium without acetate.

Table 2.1 List of the species names, recommended growth medium and library collection with their associated accession numbers (Ag: on agar) used in this study.

Species name	growth medium	library collection	accession number
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i>	ES Ag	SAG	34.98
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	ESF1 Ag	SAG	384-1
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i>	ESP Ag	SAG	612.12
<i>Onychonema laeve</i>	MiEB12 Ag	SAG	1.93
<i>Spirogyra sp.</i>	MiEB12	SAG	170.9
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	ES	SAG	110.8
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	MB3N	UTEX	LB 1969
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	MB3N	UTEX	578
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	MB3N	UTEX	B 1337
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	MB3N	UTEX	LB 1970
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	MB3N	UTEX	LB 492

Table 2.2 Classification and habitat description of the six streptophyte algae.

Species name	Systematic classification	Habitats	References
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i>	Chlorokybophyceae, Charophytes	Present in soils, almost exclusively in subaerial habitats	Algaebase
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	Klebsormidiophyceae, Charophytes	Occurs in freshwaters, but can be found in soil and moist substrate	Mikhailyuk <i>et al.</i> , 2015
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i>	Desmidiales, Zygnematophyceae, Charophytes	Periphytic, metaphytic, common in freshwaters, occasionally subaerial or in basic eutrophic freshwater	Taniguchi <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>Onychonema laeve</i>	Desmidiales, Zygnematophyceae, Charophytes	Freshwater	Algaebase
<i>Spirogyra sp.</i>	Zygnematales, Zygnematophyceae, Charophytes	Widespread in freshwater, reported from all continents, occurs frequently in stagnant but aerobic habitats in floating or submerged mats	Algaebase
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	Coleochaetophyceae, Charophytes	Common in freshwater periphyton	Graham <i>et al.</i> , 2012

2.1.2 Oxygen evolution for photosynthetic affinity for inorganic carbon

Apparent affinity for inorganic carbon (Ci) was determined by oxygen evolution (Badger *et al.*, 1980) and as described in Mitchell *et al.* (2014). All 12 algal strains were grown in Tris-phosphate medium (TP) and cells in log phase were harvested by centrifugation at 3,234 *g* for 5 minutes at 20 °C and resuspended in 1 mL of 25mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.5). Cells were added to a sealed Clark oxygen electrode chamber (Rank Brothers, Cambridge, UK) attached to a circulating water bath at 25°C, stirred and exposed to white light (200-300 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$) to allow consumption of internal Ci. When net oxygen evolution ceased, aliquots of HCO_3^- were added to the cells every 30 seconds. The rate of oxygen evolution was recorded every second using a PicoLog 1216 data logger (Pico Technologies, St Neots, UK). Cumulative concentrations of HCO_3^- after each addition were as follow: 2.5, 5, 25, 50, 100, 250, 500, 1000, and 2000 μM for the cultures grown in low CO_2 condition. Five extra concentrations were added in cultures grown under high CO_2 condition in order to reach the maximum rate of oxygen evolution (2500, 3000, 4000, 4500 and 5000 μM). The Excel spreadsheet created for the PhD work of Dr. Madeline Mitchell (Mitchell, 2014) and SigmaPlot (Appendix 5, Systat Software, San Jose, CA) were used to fit the Michaelis-Menten kinetics equation to the curves of external inorganic carbon versus photosynthetic rate. In order to support the presence of a CCM in low CO_2 conditions, Student's t-tests (Student, 1908; Appendix 6) were performed to statistically test for the differences between low and high CO_2 results but also the different affinities between the different species grown in the same condition. Finally, to allow comparison between the different strains, O_2 evolutions (y axis) were transformed in maximum photosynthetic rate (%) where the maximum velocity rate was considered as 100% of the photosynthetic capacity.

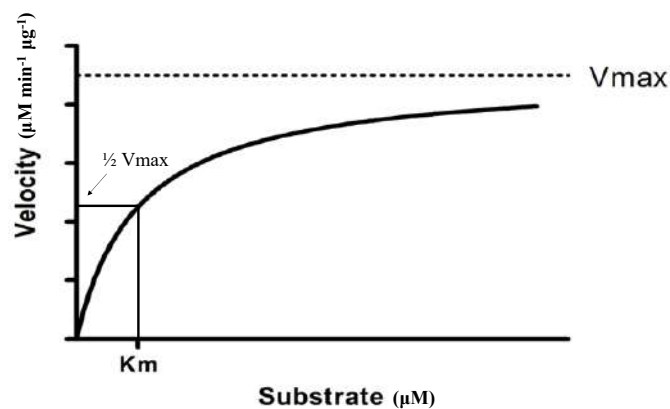


Figure 2.1 Michaelis-Menten saturation curve for an enzyme reaction showing the relation between substrate concentration and reaction rate.

2.1.3 Chlorophyll extraction and measurements

Chlorophyll concentrations were measured for the normalization of oxygen evolution measurements. Following measurements of oxygen evolution, cells were harvested and resuspended in 1 mL of 100% methanol. After centrifugation (1 min, max speed), the concentrations of chlorophylls *a* and *b* were determined by measuring absorbance at 470, 653, 665, 666 and 750 nm with a spectrometer (UV 300 UV-visible spectrometer, Spectronic Unicam) and obtained using the equation of Porra *et al.* (1989).

2.1.4 Determination of isotopic ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) for composition of organic matter

All the analyses were performed at the Godwin Laboratory for Paleoclimate Research at the University of Cambridge. Algae cultures were harvested by centrifugation at 3,234 *g* for 5 minutes at 20°C (Eppendorf, Centrifuge 5804 R), resuspended in 0.1M HCl to remove inorganic carbon and washed several times with deionized water (DIW). Samples were stored overnight at -80°C and then dried in a freeze drier for 24 hours. Samples were then weighed (0.5 mg) in triplicate into 3mm x 5mm tin capsules (Experimental Microanalysis Ltd., Okehampton, UK). The results were reported with reference to the international standard VPDB with a precision better than +/- 0.08 per mil for $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$.

2.2 Microscopy methods

2.2.1 Fixing and embedding for pyrenoid morphologies

Pyrenoid morphologies were examined using blockface imaging by Scanning Electronic Microscopy (SEM). All 12 algal strains were grown in Tris-phosphate medium and bubbled with ambient air. Cells in log phase were harvested by centrifugation at 3,234 *g* for 5 minutes at 20°C. Sample preparation and imaging were undertaken at the Cambridge Advanced Imaging Centre (CAIC) with Karin Müller. Algal cells were collected by centrifugation (1,000 $\times g$, 5 min with slow deceleration, at room temperature), resuspended and fixed in 1.5 mL of 2% glutaraldehyde, 2% formaldehyde in 0.05 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4, containing 2 mM CaCl_2) at 4°C overnight. Samples were then washed five times with 0.05 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) and osmicated for 3 days at 4°C in 1% osmium tetroxide (OsO_4), 1.5% potassium ferricyanide ($\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$) and 0.05 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4). Cells were treated with 0.1% thiocarbohydrazide for 20 min at room temperature in the dark, then osmicated a second time for 1 h at room temperature in 2% of

OsSO₄ (in DIW) and treated with bulk stain (2% uranyl acetate in 0.05 M maleate buffer pH 5.5) for 3 days at 4°C. Samples were washed 5 times in DIW between each of the last three steps. Two dehydration steps were then undertaken. Firstly, the samples went through a series of ethanol solutions of 50%, 70%, 95% and 100% (3x for 5 min in each). Secondly, samples were dehydrated twice in 100% dry ethanol, twice in 100% dry acetone and 3 times in 100% dry acetonitrile for at least 5 min for each step. Samples were mixed in an equal volume of Quetol resin mix [12 g Quetol 651, 15.7g Nonenyl Succinic Anhydride (NSA), 5.7 g methyl-5-Norbornene-2,3-Dicarboxylic Anhydride (MNA)] and 100% dry acetonitrile overnight. Samples were incubated in pure Quetol resin mix for 3 days, then samples were exchanged into fresh Quetol resin mix [containing 0.5 g Benzyldimethylamine (BDMA)] every day. Finally, cells were spun for 10 min at 13,000g in the resin and were put into a curing oven at 60°C for 48 hours. Samples were then removed from the Eppendorf tubes using a hacksaw and mounted on small aluminium SEM stubs using conductive epoxy resin. Resins were hardened at 60°C for 30 min. Stubs were sputtered with 35 nm gold using an EmiTech-Quorum sputter coater (EMITECH-Quorum Technologies, Kent, UK). A Leica Ultracut ultramicrotome (Leica, Austria) was then used to smooth the blockfaces. Stubs were sputtered again with 30 nm carbon using a Quorum 150T carbon coater. Finally, blockfaces were imaged using a FEI Verios 460 scanning electron microscope run at 4 keV accelerating voltage/0.2 nA probe current using the concentric backscatter detector (10 μ s dwell time, 2 line integrations) and a working distance of about 3.5 mm. Maps were imaged overnight using FEI MAPS software using a pixel resolution of 1536 x 1024, a horizontal field width of 15.9 μ m/tile, an x-y tile overlap of 15 %/20 % and the MAPS default stitching profile.

2.2.2. Image analyses

Cell morphologies were measured with ImageJ (Schrödinger, 2010) and measurements were treated with Microsoft Excel.

2.3 Molecular biology

2.3.1 Genomic DNA extraction

All the strains were grown in their recommended medium (Table 2.1) and bubbled with ambient air. Cells in log phase were harvested by centrifugation at 3,234 g for 5 min at 20°C

and resuspended in 500 μ L of CTAB Extraction Buffer (2% w/v CTAB, 100 mM Tris-HCl pH=8, 1.4M NaCl, 20mM EDTA- Na_2 pH=8 and 2% v/v β -mercaptoethanol). 500 μ L of phenol:chloroform:isoamylalcohol (25:24:1) (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the different samples after incubation (1 hour at 65°C). New mixes were then vortexed and spun down at 12,000 rpm for 20 min. Supernatants were transferred to new 2 mL Eppendorf tubes and DNA was precipitated by adding 0.7x the volume of supernatant with isopropanol to each sample. DNA precipitation was collected by centrifugation at maximum speed for 15 min at 4°C. Supernatants were then discarded, pellets washed with 500 μ L of 80% ethanol and samples spun down at 8,000 g for 5 min at 20°C. After drying, pellets were resuspended in 30 μ L of di-ionized water (DIW).

2.3.2 Genomic DNA quantification

Quantification of DNA was made with Qbit® Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Carlsberg, CA). Two ratios of absorbance (260/280nm and 260/230nm) were measured with Nanodrop (Thermo Scientific NanoDrop Products) to assess the purity of DNA.

2.4 Biochemistry

2.4.1 Rubisco purification

Strains were cultured in an incubator shaker (Incubator shaker, Innova 42, New Brunswick Scientific) in their recommended medium within large, 2 L flasks, under constant light at room temperature and bubbled with ambient air. Due to the low concentration of Rubisco in algae (Losh *et al.*, 2013; Valegård *et al.*, 2018) a minimum of 30 g wet paste per sample was cultured in order to have enough material for the following experiments.

Algal cells were broken using an Emulsiflex-C5 high pressure homogenizer (Avestin Inc., Ottawa, Canada) kindly loaned by Biopharma Group (Winchester, UK). Cell pastes were suspended in *ca.* 200 mL of extraction buffer containing 10 mM MgCl_2 , 50 mM Bicine, 10 mM NaHCO_3 , 1 mM DTT, 1 mM ϵ -aminocaproic acid, 1 mM benzamidine, 0.1 M phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and 200 μ L of protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, UK). Total soluble proteins were extracted via centrifugation at 22,000 $\times g$ for 12 minutes (min) at 4°C (with an Avanti centrifuge, Beckman-Coulter). After this initial centrifugation step, PEG₄₀₀₀ (60% w/v) and 1 M MgCl_2 were added to the supernatant and the rest of the purification carried out as described previously (Orr & Carmo-Silva 2018). Peak fractions containing

Rubisco (based on CABP binding [Sharwood *et al.*, 2016]) were concentrated using Amicon Ultracel-15 concentrators (100 kDa MWCO, Merck-Millipore, UK). Aliquots were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

2.4.2 Rubisco catalytic properties

Rubisco activity for the six streptophyte algae was determined by incorporation of H^{14}CO_3 into acid-stable products at 25°C and pH=7 as described in Prins *et al.* (2016) with some modifications. Purified Rubisco was diluted using desalting buffer (Orr & Carmo-Silva, 2018) and then desalted using a G-25 MidiTrap column (GE Healthcare, UK). Samples were allowed to activate on ice for 45 mins prior to assaying. All the purified Rubisco were assumed to be functionally active. Carboxylation activity was measured at nine different concentrations of CO_2 (8, 16, 24, 36, 68, 100, 180, 280 and 400 μM) and with O_2 concentrations of 0 and 21%. In order to ensure that the activity measured was entirely due to Rubisco, three controls were performed: CO_2 fixation (acid-stable ^{14}C) was measured in reaction solutions lacking RuBP or NaHCO_3 , and following total inhibition of Rubisco by prior treatment with an excess of the tight-binding inhibitor 2-carboxyarabinitol-1,5-bisphosphate (CABP). Radioactive content of ^{14}C -labelled compounds was measured in 0.4 ml aqueous solutions to which were added 3.6 ml Gold Star Quanta Scintillation cocktail (Meridian Biotechnologies, UK), in a Tri-Carb 2250 CA Liquid Scintillation Analyser (Perkin-Elmer, USA). Turnover number (k_{cat} : mol product mol active site $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$) was calculated from the corresponding V_{max} value (V_c : μmol acid-stable ^{14}C mg Rubisco $^{-1}$ min $^{-1}$).

2.4.3 Rubisco quantification

Rubisco quantification was via [^{14}C]CABP binding assay as described Sharwood *et al.* (2016). Rubisco was incubated for 25 min after adding [^{14}C]CABP. Each quantification was performed in duplicate. Radioactive content of ^{14}C -labelled compounds was measured using scintillation counting as described above.

2.5 Bioinformatic analyses

2.5.1 *RbcS* analyses

2.5.1.1 Data collection

All the *RbcS* sequences used in this research were kindly been provided by “The 1000 plants project” (1KP; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019; Carpenter *et al.*, 2019). Data consisted of two different data sets (DNA and protein sequences) and were treated in two phases. The main phylogeny of *RbcS* was firstly based on the protein sequences, whilst the DNA sequences were used for the analyses of selection. The protein data set consisted of 2,674 protein sequences, including 239 species of algae (171 green algae, 28 red algae, 35 Chromista and 5 Glaucophyta) collected in the field, provided and extracted by Michael Melkonian (University of Cologne).

2.5.1.2 Multiple alignment of *RbcS* protein sequences

Only the sequences belonging to the green algae were analysed. The two copies of *RbcS* of *Chl. reinhardtii* and one sequence of *Coccomyxa subellipsoidea* available on GenBank were also added to the dataset. All the protein sequences were manually and individually screened. Sequences showing cross-contamination (Carpenter *et al.*, 2019), or which were too short or incomplete, were removed. The dataset did not allow to unambiguously identify *RbcS* isoforms. Although it is generally taken that all photosynthetic members of the Viridiplantae have multiple copies of the *RbcS* gene, conservatively only one sequence was used in the analysis for each species, except when the data was sourced from independently sequenced genomes (e.g. for *Asteromonas*). A total of 187 protein sequences belonging to 113 species (31 streptophyte algae, 10 prasinophytes, 72 chlorophytes) were then aligned with Clustal Omega (Sievers *et al.*, 2011; Appendix 7).

2.5.1.3 Selection of the best-fit models of evolution

To obtain a robust gene phylogeny, the most appropriate model of evolution (which best fits the data) needs to be identified. Models of evolution can also be called models of substitutions and indicate the probability of change from a given amino acid/nucleotide to another. The selection of the best model is made based on the estimation of the quality of each model relative to each of the other models (Bozdogan, 1987). Three different ways are used to estimate the quality of the models: The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), the

Akaike Information Criterion C (AICc; which is a simple correction of the previous model but for finite sample sizes) and finally the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). ProTest v2.4 (Abascal *et al.*, 2005) was used to select the best model of protein evolution.

2.5.1.4 Protein phylogeny reconstruction

BEAST 2 provides a platform for Bayesian phylogenetic analysis of molecular sequences (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014). It does not require an outgroup but needs strong prior parameters for the evolutionary model, the molecular clock, the model of speciation and the rate of evolution. The evolutionary model describes the different probabilities of change from one nucleotide to another, the molecular clock uses the mutation rate of nucleotides/amino acids to estimate when species diverged and thus influences branch lengths in the trees. The models of speciation make predictions about the shape of the phylogenetic tree connecting extant species (Steel & McKenzie, 2001). The rate of evolution is also an important parameter because it varies due to different selective constraints that are acting on the different sites (Stamatakis, 2014), consequently the usual phylogenetic approach is to consider a rate of evolution heterogeneous among sites.

The rate of evolution for each site is modelled as a random variable drawn from a specified prior distribution. The most common model used to describe these variations is the gamma distribution (where 4 rate categories provide accurate approximations for dataset of medium size). Finally, BEAST 2 uses the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method to reconstruct phylogenies. MCMC is a simulation algorithm which explores all the tree possibilities given the prior parameters (Yang & Rannala, 2012). Consequently, the chain parameters also need to be set.

The original input file was created with Beauti v2.3.1 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) using a LG model of evolution (Le & Gascuel, 2008) with frequencies of transversion and transition all equal, a gamma distribution model with 4 categories, a relaxed molecular clock with rates for each branch drawn from a log normal distribution and a Yule model of speciation with a random starting tree. The Yule model is the simplest stochastic model of speciation and assumes that at any time, each of the extant species are equally likely to give rise to one species, or, in contrast, are equally likely to go extinct. Three independent chains were run, each of length 8×10^7 with parameter values sampled every 10×10^2 steps. Chain convergences were checked using Tracer v1. (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007). Posterior parameters were summarised with Tree Annotator v1.8.2 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007)

using a maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree, a posterior probability limit of 0.5 and a mean node height. Finally FigTree v1.4.2 (Rambaut, 2007) was used for tree visualizations.

2.5.1.5 Phylogenetic analyses

2.5.1.5.1 Systematic analyses

Terminal branches were coloured as a function of their divisions (chlorophyta, prasinophytes and streptophyte algae) according to the 1KP classification (Mickael Melkonian; <http://www.onekp.com/samples/list.php?set=algae>) in order to see how the species were distributed across the phylogeny of *RbcS*.

2.5.1.5.2 Scoring for pyrenoid presence/absence

Scoring for pyrenoid/presence of the pyrenoid in the different species of the phylogeny of *RbcS* was based on bibliographic analyses. Presence of a pyrenoid was either confirmed by electron microscope image or simple description in articles (Appendix 8). The absence of pyrenoid was often simply mentioned in the species description. However, for some species the diagnostic remained unknown due to the absence of description in the literature.

2.5.1.5.3 Scoring for β A- β B loop length

Loop length was determined based on the multiple alignment of the protein sequences. The number of residues in the loop was counted according to Spreitzer (2003) and mapped on the phylogeny of *RbcS*.

2.5.1.6 Tests for selective pressure on *RbcS*

2.5.1.6.1 Analyses of positive selection

2.5.1.6.1.1 Theory

Positive selection can be defined by the relative rates of synonymous and non-synonymous substitutions (Miyata *et al.*, 1979; Li *et al.*, 1985). Synonymous substitutions are substitutions (d_s) of one base by another that does not alter the amino acid sequence after translation, whereas non synonymous substitution (d_N) alters the amino acid sequence. Therefore, substitution rate is a function of selective pressure on the proteins and is defined

by the ratio between d_N and d_S (d_N/d_S) and can also be called omega (ω). When, ω is less than 1 ($\omega < 1$), the selection is defined as «purifying selection» and removes the amino acids with either a direct negative impact on the protein. In contrast when $\omega > 1$, mutations are advantageous and will be fixed at a higher rate than synonymous mutations. Finally when, $\omega = 1$ evolution is considered as neutral.

2.5.1.6.1.2 Identification of residues under positive selection

To test the importance of two SSU α -helices for pyrenoid formation in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Meyer *et al.*, 2012), the Codon-based package (codeml) implemented in PAML v4.9 (Yang & Nielsen, 1998; Yang, 1998, 2007) was used to detect residues under positive selection across the green algae lineage. In addition, the presence of a CCM is not universal across the green algae so the branch model also implemented in PAML was used to detect branches under positive selection. The DNA phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using BEAST v2.3.1 with 135 cDNA *RbcS* sequences of green algae from the 1KP, with a GTR model of protein evolution (Tavaré, 1986) and the same gamma distribution, molecular clock and model of speciation previously used. Three independent chains were run, each of length 5×10^7 steps, parameters values and trees were sampled every 10×10^2 steps. Chain convergences, posterior parameters and tree visualization were analysed with the same method explained above. All the analyses were run using “user tree” run mode, meaning that both the multiple alignment and the phylogenetic tree were used to test for positive selection. Several models of codon evolution that allow for variations in ω (d_N/d_S) among codons were tested (Site models) using Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRTs) (Neyman & Pearson, 1928) and as described in Kapralov & Filatov (2007). Positive selection was evaluated by contrasting a null model (H_0) that does not allow variations between sites with a more general model (H_1) where this condition is allowed (Pie, 2006). The level of significance was assessed using the likelihood ratio statistic [calculated by multiplying twice the difference in likelihood scores ($2\Delta\ln L$) of each model]. This ratio was then compared with a χ^2 distribution with the number of freedom (which is the number of values in the final calculation and which can vary during the analysis). The different degrees of freedom (df) were calculated by the difference in the numbers of parameters in the two tested models.

For this research, residues under positive selections were detected using three different LRTs: M0-M3, M7-M8 and M8a-M8 each fitting different number of parameters. The first model comparison aimed to show variations between sites where M0 had 1 ratio fitting a

single ω_0 averaged over all sites (H0) and where M3 fit 3 discrete classes of sites, each with different ω_0 (H1). M7-M8 and M8a-M8 aimed to detect residues under positive selection where M7 (model considering beta-distributed selective pressures on the sites and allows 10 site classes each with $\omega < 1$) and M8a (β and $\omega = 1$, H0) were the null models. Both models were compared to M8 (β and $\omega > 1$, H1), which allows 11 sites classes, one of which allows for $\omega > 1$. An equilibrium codon frequency in codon substitution model was assumed from the average nucleotide frequencies at the three codon positions. Kappa (transition/transversion rate ratios) and ω were estimated but α was fixed. Positions with a probability superior to 0.9 were considered to be under positive selection. Bayes empirical Bayes (BEB) (Yang *et al.*, 2005) was used to calculate posterior probabilities for site classes and to identify sites under positive selection in the cases where likelihood ratio tests were significant according to PAML manual (Yang, 2007).

2.5.1.6.1.3 Identification of branches under positive selection

Branch models were used to test for positive selection across branches. The null model allowed for variations in ω among branches ($0 < d_N/d_S < 1$ and $d_N/d_S = 1$ for both foreground and background branches) and also included two additional classes of codons with fixed $d_N/d_S = 1$ on foreground branches but restricted as $0 < d_N/d_S < 1$ and $d_N/d_S = 1$ for background branches. The alternative model allowed $0 < d_N/d_S < 1$ and $d_N/d_S = 1$ for both foreground and background branches but also included two additional classes of codons under positive selection with $d_N/d_S > 1$ on foreground branches with restriction as $0 < d_N/d_S < 1$ and $d_N/d_S = 1$ on background branches. Branches leading to species without pyrenoid were labelled as foreground branches (allows positive selection) and the rest of the branches were considered as background branches (with no positive selection). The level of significance was tested as described above.

2.5.1.6.2 Analyses of relaxed selection

Relaxation of selective strength is characterised by a reduction in the efficiency or intensity of natural selection and can lead to evolutionary innovation but also to lineage extinction or loss of function (Wertheim *et al.*, 2014). In order to test for relaxed selection in *RbcS*, the RELAX program (Wertheim *et al.*, 2014) implemented in Hyphy (Pond & Muse, 2005) was used. RELAX aims to test whether the strength of natural selection has been relaxed or intensified among specific sets of branches. Similar to PAML, it compares two different

models (H0 and H1) where H0 includes the reference branches and H1 the tested branches. RELAX introduces a new parameter called k (where $k \geq 0$), which describes the relation between the reference and tested branches. H0 constrains $k=1$, whereas H1 set k as a free parameter. Then, LRT is used to compare the two models. If k is greater than one, then selection has been intensified along the tested branches whereas $k < 1$ indicates relaxed selection along the tested branches.

Relaxed selection was tested using the same nuclear phylogenetic tree of *RbcS* previously obtained for PAML analyses. Five different tests were performed (Figure 2.2) ten times each to avoid false positive results. In the first test, branches including all the streptophyte algae were labelled as test branches (H1) and the rest of the tree considered as reference branches (H0). The second test tested for the opposite, with all the branches leading to chlorophytes considered as test branches (H1) and the rest of the tree, reference branches (H0). The next three tests were performed on the basal branches of the tree. The third test was performed on the basal branches of the tree leading to the two main clusters (H1) with the rest of the tree was labelled as reference (H0). Finally, the fourth and fifth tests were performed on the same branches, but branches were tested individually.

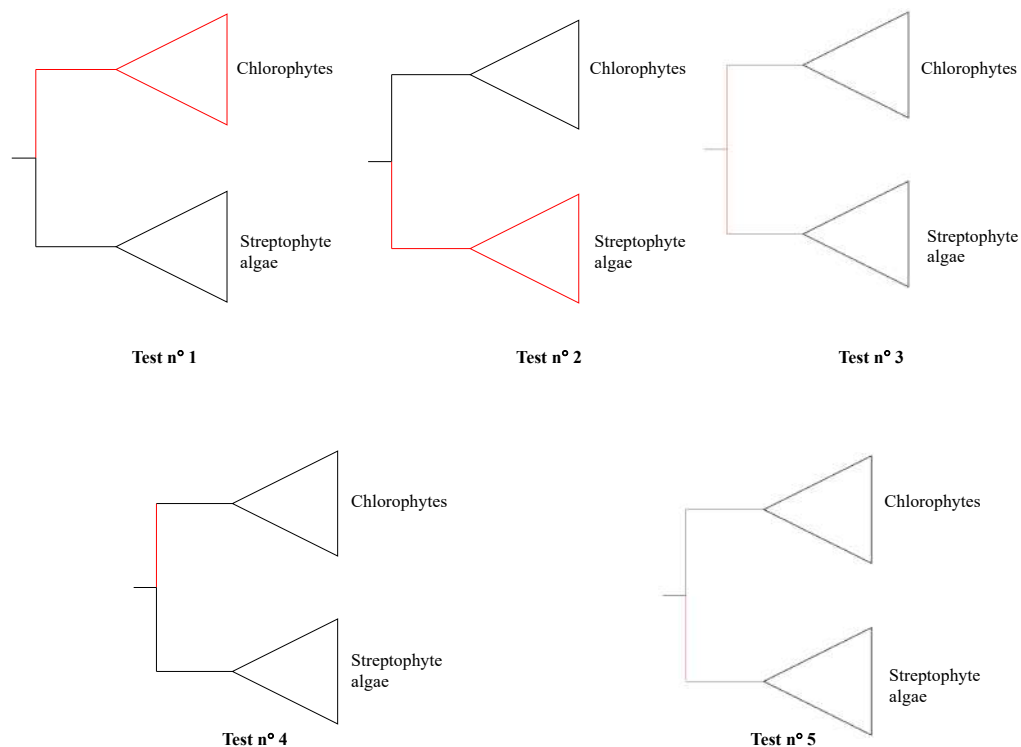


Figure 2.2 Illustration of the five different tests performed with RELAX (Wertheim *et al.*, 2014) on the phylogeny of *RbcS* (simplified for this figure). Red branches represent the tested branches (H1) and the black branches were considered as reference branches (H0).

2.5.2 Whole genome sequencing

2.5.2.1 Re-sequencing

Previously extracted genomic DNA (see paragraph 2.3.1) was re-sequenced by BGI using BGISEq technology. Paired-end libraries were prepared using BGISEQ library construction. Read lengths were 100 bp long. Resulting reads were assembled using SPAdes (Bankevich *et al.*, 2012). *K*-mer frequency was set to 55, 77 and 99.

2.5.2.2 *De novo* sequencing

Genomic DNA was extracted as explained above and *de novo* sequenced by the Norwegian Sequencing Center, CEES in Oslo using PacBio SMRT cell. Long reads were assembled using wtdbg2 (Ruan & Li, 2019).

2.5.2.3 Hybrid assembly

Both sequencing technologies were combined in order to obtain new *de novo* assembly including both long and short reads. The combination of both technologies increases the accuracy of the genomes. Hybrid assemblies were obtained using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA; Li & Durbin, 2009). The quality of the new assemblies was assessed with QUAST (Gurevich *et al.*, 2013).

2.5.2.4 Chloroplast genome reconstruction

Annotations of the five genomes is ongoing, therefore, in this study limited analyses were conducted on the new genomes. In addition, all the following analyses were made on the hybrid (combination of the short and the long reads) genomes. Despite being closely related, the chloroplastic genome of *Chl. reinhardtii* could not be used to reconstruct the full chloroplast genome of the five new algal strains and therefore only coding sequences (CDS) were extracted. Nodes containing the different CDS were identified using BLAST (Kent, 2002) based on the CDS genes of *Chl. reinhardtii* (NC005353) and *Chloromonas perforata* (KT625416). CDS genes from the five new strains were then manually extracted using Geneious (Kearse *et al.*, 2012).

Table 2.3 List of the green algae species used to reconstruct the chloroplastic phylogeny of green algae, their systematic classification, their accession numbers on GenBank and their pyrenoid diagnostic. Species without pyrenoid are highlighted in light grey.

Species name	Systematic	Accession number	Pyrenoid presence/absence	References
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Land plant	NC000932	Presence	
<i>Bathyococcus prasinus</i>	Prasinophytes	FO082259	Absence	Eikrem & Throndsen, 1990
<i>Botryococcus braunii</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025545	Presence	Wolf & Cox, 1981
<i>Bryopsis plumosa</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_026795	Presence	Ogawa, 1988
<i>Chaetosphaeridium globosum</i>	Streptophyte algae	AF494278	Presence	Moestrup, 1974
<i>Chara vulgaris</i>	Streptophyte algae	DQ229107	Presence	
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	Chlorophytes	WGS of this study	Presence	See Chapter 4
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	Chlorophytes	WGS of this study	Presence	See Chapter 4
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_005353	Presence	Meyer <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Mackinder <i>et al.</i> , 2016
<i>Chlorella mirabilis</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025528	Presence	Dempsey <i>et al.</i> , 1980
<i>Chlorella sorokiniana</i>	Chlorophytes	KJ742376	Presence	Dempsey <i>et al.</i> , 1980
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i>	Streptophyte algae	DQ422812	Presence	See Chapter 3
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	Chlorophytes	WGS of this study	Absence	See Chapter 4
<i>Chloromonas perforata</i>	Chlorophytes	KT625416	Absence	Buchheim <i>et al.</i> , 1997
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	Chlorophytes	WGS of this study	Absence	See Chapter 4
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	Chlorophytes	WGS of this study	Absence	See Chapter 4
<i>Closterium baillyanum</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030314	Presence	Leyon, 1954
<i>Coccomyxa sp</i>	Chlorophytes	MF805805	Absence	Crespo <i>et al.</i> , 2009
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030358	Presence	See Chapter 3
<i>Cosmarium botrytis</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030357	Presence	Gerrath, (1968)
<i>Cylindrocystis brebissonii</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030359	Presence	Croasdale & Grönblad, 1964

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<i>Cymbomonas tetramitiformis</i>	Prasinophytes	KX013545	Absence	Moestrup <i>et al.</i> , 2003
<i>Entransia fimbriata</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030313	Presence	Cook, 2004
<i>Floydiella terrestris</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_014346	Presence	
<i>Gloeotilopsis sarcinoidea</i>	Chlorophytes	KX306821	Presence	
<i>Igniatius tetrasporus</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_034712	Presence	Watanabe & Nakayama, 2007
<i>Interfilum terricola</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025542	Presence	Mikhailyuk <i>et al.</i> , 2008
<i>Klebsormidium flaccidum</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_024167	Presence	Mikhailyuk <i>et al.</i> , 2014
<i>Leptosira terrestris</i>	Chlorophytes	EF506945	Presence	Stewart <i>et al.</i> , 1973
<i>Lobosphaera incisa</i>	Chlorophytes	KM821265	Presence	
<i>Mesostigma viride</i>	Streptophyte algae	AF166114	Presence	Buchmann & Becker, 2009
<i>Mesotaenium endlicherianum</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_024169	Presence	West, 1904
<i>Microthamnion kuetzingianum</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025537	Absence	Watson, 1975
<i>Monomastix sp</i>	Prasinophytes	FJ493497	Presence	Belcher & Swale, 1961
<i>Neocystis brevis</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025535	Presence	
<i>Nephroselmis olivacea</i>	Prasinophytes	AF137379	Presence	Suda <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Nitella hyalina</i>	Streptophyte algae	KX306884	Presence	Osterhout, 1945
<i>Oltmannsiellops viridis</i>	Chlorophytes	DQ291132	Presence	Chihara <i>et al.</i> , 1986
<i>Oogamochlamys gigantae</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_028580	Presence	Pröschold <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Ostreococcus tauri</i>	Prasinophytes	NC_008289	Absence	Meyer & Griffiths, 2013
<i>Palmophyllum crassum</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_033387	Presence	
<i>Parachlorella kessleri</i>	Chlorophytes	FJ968741	Presence	Juárez <i>et al.</i> , 2011
<i>Pediastrum angulosum</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_037919	Presence	Wilcox & Floyd, 1988
<i>Pedinomonas minor</i>	Chlorophytes	FJ968740	Presence	Moestrup, 1991
<i>Pedinomonas tuberculata</i>	Chlorophytes	KM462867	Presence	Manton & Parke, 1960
<i>Phacotus lenticularis</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_028587	Presence	Hepperle & Krienitz, 1996
<i>Picocystis salinarum</i>	Prasinophytes	NC_024828	Absence	Lewin <i>et al.</i> , 2000

<i>Prasinococcus sp</i>	Prasinophytes	KJ746597	Presence	Guillou <i>et al.</i> , 2004
<i>Prasinoderma coloniale</i>	Prasinophytes	NC_024817	Presence	Hasegawa <i>et al.</i> , 1996
<i>Prototheca wickerhamii</i>	Chlorophytes	KJ001761	Absence	Joshi <i>et al.</i> , 1975
<i>Pycnococcus provasolii</i>	Prasinophytes	FJ493498	Presence	Guillard <i>et al.</i> , 1991
<i>Pyramimonas parkae</i>	Prasinophytes	KX013546	Presence	Pearson & Norris, 1975
<i>Roya obtusa</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030315	Presence	Ljunggren & Oja, 1961
<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i>	Chlorophytes	DQ396875	Presence	Miyachi <i>et al.</i> , 1986
<i>Scherffelia dubia</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_029807	Absence	Melkonian & Preisig, 1986
<i>Spermatozopsis similis</i>	Chlorophytes	MG778500	Absence	Preisig & Melkonian, 1984
<i>Spirogyra maxima</i>	Streptophyte algae	NC_030355	Presence	See chapter 3
<i>Stichococcus bacillaris</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025527	Presence	Massalski <i>et al.</i> , 2001
<i>Stigeoclonium helveticum</i>	Chlorophytes	DQ630521	Presence	Stewart <i>et al.</i> , 1973
<i>Symbiochloris handae</i>	Chlorophytes	KM462860	Presence	
<i>Tetraselmis sp</i>	Chlorophytes	KU167097	Presence	Chengwu & Hongjun, 2018; Hori <i>et al.</i> , 1986
<i>Trentepohlia odorata</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_043776	Absence	Algaebase
<i>Ulva lactuca</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_042255	Presence	Stewart <i>et al.</i> , 1973
<i>Watanabea reniformis</i>	Chlorophytes	NC_025526	Absence	Hanagata <i>et al.</i> , 1998
<i>Zygnema circumcarinatum</i>	Streptophyte algae	AY958086	Presence	Pichrtová <i>et al.</i> , 2013

2.5.2.5 Phylogeny of the chloroplastic CDS

Two phylogenies were built based on chloroplastic genes. The first phylogeny was built using the five newly sequenced strains from *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* and 57 other species found on GenBank (Table 2.3). Species selected for this phylogeny were chosen in order to maximise the number of pyrenoid free species whilst also covering all the main lineages of the green algae phylogeny (Leliart *et al.*, 2012; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). *Arabidopsis thaliana* (land plant; NC_000932) was used as an outgroup to root the second tree.

To test for the monophyly of the genus *Chloromonas* and secondly to infer the multiple and independent origin of the pyrenoid in green algae, another phylogeny was built with a smaller sample size including only *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains. *Cosmarium botrytis* (Streptophyte algae; NC030357) was used as an outgroup to root the tree. For both phylogenies, only the most common 44 chloroplastic genes found across all the 64 species were used (Table 2.4). However, because not all the species included the 44 CDS genes, when absent the gene of interest was replaced by “N” of the length of the gene in the alignment. In the same way as in paragraph 2.5.1.3 jModelTest (Posada, 2008) was performed on the entire dataset (64 species) to select the best model of evolution and sequences were aligned using MAFFT (Katoh *et al.*, 2005). After alignment, phylogenies were built using RAXML (Stamatakis, 2014) and 100 bootstraps.

Table 2.4 List of the 44 CDS genes used to build the two chloroplastic phylogenies and their functions

CDS name	Function
atpA	ATP synthase CF1 alpha subunit
atpB	ATP synthase CF1 beta subunit
atpE	ATP synthase CF1 epsilon subunit
atpF	ATP synthase CF0 B subunit
atpH	ATP synthase CF0 C subunit
atpI	ATP synthase CF0 A subunit
ccsa	Cytochrome c biogenesis protein
ChlB	Light-independent protochlorophyllide reductase subunit B
ChlL	Protochlorophyllide reductase subunit L
petA	Cytochrome f
petD	Cytochrome b6/f complex subunit IV
petL	Cytochrome b6/f complex subunit VI
psaA	Photosystem I P700 chlorophyll a apoprotein A1
psaC	Photosystem I subunit VII
psaJ	Photosystem I subunit IX
psbA	Photosystem II protein D1
psbB	Photosystem II 47 kDa protein
psbD	Photosystem II protein D2
psbE	Photosystem II protein V
psbF	Photosystem II protein VI
psbH	Photosystem II protein H
psbI	Photosystem II protein I
psbK	Photosystem II protein K
psbM	Photosystem II protein M
psbN	Photosystem II protein N
psbZ	Photosystem II protein Z
rbcL	Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase large subunit
rpl2	Ribosomal protein L2
rpl5	Ribosomal protein L5
rpl14	Ribosomal protein L14
rpl16	Ribosomal protein L16
rpl20	Ribosomal protein L20
rpl23	Ribosomal protein L23
rpl36	Ribosomal protein L36
rpoA	RNA polymerase alpha subunit
rpoC2	RNA polymerase beta' subunit
rps4	Ribosomal protein S4
rps7	Ribosomal protein S7
rps8	Ribosomal protein S8

rps11	Ribosomal protein S11
rps14	Ribosomal protein S14
rps19	Ribosomal protein S19
tufA	Elongation factor Tu
ycf3	Photosystem I assembly protein Ycf3

2.5.3 Genome comparison

2.5.3.1 Rubisco modelling and interactions between rbcL/*RbcS*

Rubisco homology modelling was performed using Chimera v1.13 (Pettersen *et al.*, 2004). The Rubisco structure of *Chl. reinhardtii* was used as a template (1GK8 in Protein Data Bank; Taylor *et al.*, 2001). Full rbcL sequences were used for homology modelling whereas only the *RbcS* α -helices showing the most consistency between the different sequencing methods were used for modelling. Homology modelling (Janson *et al.*, 2017) was run 10 times for each complex of rbcL/*RbcS* and the best model (the one with the lowest DOPE score) was selected. In order to remove potential mistakes (e.g. Van der Waals clashes) FoldX v4.0 (Schymkowitz *et al.*, 2005) was used to repair the new Rubisco structure. 3D structures were visualized with PyMol v1.3 (Schrödinger, 2010).

Interactions between small and large subunits were identified with the software PyMol v1.3 and the script “Interface Residues” (Schrödinger, 2010; Appendix 9) whereas surface exposed residues were detected using the script “Surface residues” provided by the author (Schrödinger, 2010) was used (Appendix 10).

2.5.3.2 Screening for the 88 essential genes for pyrenoid formation

Following Luke Mackinder’s work (Rubisco and CCM protein interactome; Mackinder *et al.*, 2017), Jonika’s group work as well as an analysis of transcriptome data in synchronised cells (Mitchell *et al.*, 2014; Zones *et al.*, 2015), and Gita Yadav’s work (5C genes, unpublished data, personal communication), 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation in *Chl. reinhardtii* were put together (Table 2.5) and blasted (BLAST; Kent, 2002) against the five new sequenced genomes containing both the short and long reads (hybrid genomes). Only the presence or the absence of these targeted genes were reported.

Table 2.5 List of the 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, their common names and their functions when possible.

Gene ID	Gene Name	Function
	BST4	
Cre01.g014350.t1.2	PRX5	Peroxioredoxin, type II
Cre01.g027150.t1.1		
Cre01.g030900.t1.1		CoA ligase / OSB-CoA synthetase
Cre01.g045902.t1.1		
Cre01.g051500.t1.2		Uncharacterized thylakoid lumenal polypeptide
Cre01.g054850.t1.2		
Cre02.g073850.t1.2		
Cre02.g078507.t1.2	PF13326	Photosystem II Pbs27 (PSII_Pbs27)
Cre02.g097800.t1.1		
Cre02.g105650.t1.2		
Cre02.g111550.t1.1		Kinase
Cre02.g120100	RbcS1	Rubisco SSU1
Cre02.g120150	RbcS2	Rubisco SSU2
Cre02.g120250.t1.1	STT7	Interact with CAH3
Cre02.g143450.t1.2	PTHR36738:SF1	Expressed protein
Cre03.g146167.t1.1	TEF10a	Predicted protein
Cre03.g151650.t1.1	SMM	
Cre03.g156600.t1.2	GluTRBP	Glutamyl-tRNA reductase binding protein
Cre03.g162800.t1.2		
Cre03.g179800.t1.2	LCI 24	
Cre03.g183850.t1.2	FDX6	Ferredoxin
Cre03.g185550.t1.2		
Cre03.g188700.t1.2		
Cre03.g189800.t1.2	CYN38	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase, cyclophilin-type
Cre03.g191250.t1.2	LCI 34	
Cre04.g223050.t1.2		
Cre04.g223300.t1	CCP1	binds weakly to Rubisco, found in Zhan/Lemaire proteome
Cre04.g229300.t1.1	RCA1	Rubisco activase 1
Cre05.g248450.t1.2		
Cre06.g259100.t1.1	SAGA1 analog	
Cre06.g259900.t1.2	ATPc	ATP synthase gamma chain, chloroplastic
Cre06.g261750		
Cre06.g273700.t1.2		
Cre06.g283750.t1.2		
Cre06.g295450.t1.2		

Cre06.g298300.t1.1		
Cre06.g307500.t1.1	LCI C	
Cre06.g309000.t1.2		
Cre07.g330250.t1.2	PSAH	Subunit H of photosystem I
Cre08.g362900.t1.1	PSBP4	Lumenal PsbP-like protein
Cre08.g372450.t1.2	PSBQ	Oxygen evolving enhancer protein 3
Cre09.g389615.t1.1		
Cre09.g394150.t1.1		
Cre09.g394473.t1.1	LCI 9	Low CO ₂ inducible protein
Cre09.g394621.t1.1	SAGA like 1	
Cre09.g396950.t1.1		Candidate Na ⁺ /HCO ₃ ⁻ transporter from screens
Cre09.g415700.t1.2	CAH3	Carbonic anhydrase
Cre09.g416800.t1.2		
Cre09.g416850.t1.2		Potential kinase, Rubisco physical interactor RBMP2
Cre10.g423500.t1.2		
Cre10.g430150.t1.2		
Cre10.g436550	EPYC1 /LCI 5	
Cre10.g439350.t1.2	PTHR17130:SF24 - GAN	
Cre10.g440000.t1.1		
Cre10.g440050.t1.2	CSP41A	Bind to Rubisco
Cre10.g444700.t1.1	SBE3	Starch branching enzyme
Cre10.g452800.t1.2	LCI B	
Cre11.g467712.t1.1	SAGA 1	
Cre12.g484200.t1.2	GGPS1	
Cre12.g485050.t1.2		
Cre12.g494850.t1.2	ADK3	Adenylate kinase 3
Cre12.g497300.t2.1		
Cre12.g507300.t1.2		
Cre12.g509050.t1.1	PSBP3	
Cre12.g519300.t1.2	TEF9	predicted protein
Cre12.g524300.t1.2		
Cre12.g524500.t1.2		
Cre12.g531050.t1.1		
Cre12.g560950.t1.2	PSAG	
Cre13.g574000.t1.1		Putative voltage-gated bicarbonate transporter from screens
Cre13.g577100.t1.2	ACP2	Acyl carrier protein
Cre13.g578650.t1.1		
Cre13.g581850.t1.2		Kinase
Cre14.g616600.t1.2	FZL	

Cre14.g626700.t1.2	Fd/FDX1	Ferredoxin
Cre16.g651050.t1.2	CYC6	cytochrome c6
Cre16.g652800.t1.2		
Cre16.g658400.t1.2	FDX2	Ferredoxine
Cre16.g659050.t1.1		
Cre16.g662150.t1.2	CCB1/CPLD51	cytochrome b6f complex assembly
Cre16.g662600.t1.2	BST1	
Cre16.g663450.t1.2	LCI 11	
Cre17.g721500.t1.2	STA2	Starch synthase, chloroplastic/amyloplastic
Cre17.g724300.t1.2	PsaK	Photosystem I reaction center subunit psaK
Cre17.g725500.t1.2		
Cre17.g740950.t1.2	LHL4	High intensity light-inducible lhc-like gene
	rbcL	

2.5.3.3 Screening for EPYC1

EPYC1 was screened separately using Mackinder's methods (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016) since EPYC1 is a strongly disordered protein. The five new complete genomic sequences were translated into protein sequences (6 frames) using EMBOSS-6.6.0 (Rice *et al.*, 2000). Protein sequences were then analysed for tandem repeat using Xstream (Newman & Cooper, 2007) with the same setting used in Mackinder *et al.* (2016): Min Period 40; Max Period 80; Min Copy 3, Min TR Domain 75 and Min Seq Content 0.7. Gene Infinity Protein Isoelectric Point Calculator (http://www.geneinfinity.org/sms/sms_proteiniep.html) was used to determine the pI of the Xstream hits. The disorder profiles of these hits were then calculated using VLXT (Romero *et al.*, 2001) and the presence of transmembrane domains was detected using TMHMM v2.0 (Krogh *et al.*, 2001). As mentioned in Mackinder's paper, hits with an oscillating disorder profile with a frequency between 40-80 were classified as potential EPYC1-like Rubisco linker proteins.

Chapter 3: Role of the Small subunit of Rubisco in the green algal phylogeny

Most of this chapter can be found as part of: Rubisco and Carbon Concentration Mechanism (CCM) co-evolution across Chlorophytes and Streptophytes (Goudet MMM., Orr DJ., Melkonian M., Müller KH., Meyer MT., Carmo-Silva E. & Griffiths H. Submitted to New Phytologist: 19 Nov. 2019; Decided: 31 Jan. 2020; manuscript under revision for resubmission; accepted: 23 March 2020)

3.1 Introduction

Photoautotrophic organisms globally fix $111\text{--}117 \times 10^{15}$ grams of carbon per year and around half of this global net primary production is aquatic (Behrenfeld *et al.*, 2001; Field *et al.*, 1998), with green algae a major contributor to this global carbon fixation. Green algae are classified into two major groups: chlorophytes and streptophytes, the latter demonstrating a wide range of ultrastructural and developmental traits closely related to land plants. Despite the existence of terrestrial green algae (Warren *et al.*, 2019), both groups remain subject to key limitations in the aquatic milieu (low CO₂ diffusion and availability, light limitation; Borges & Frankignoulle, 2002; Yamano *et al.*, 2015).

Green algal inter-relationships have been resolved through numerous molecular phylogenies, including the chloroplast gene (*rbcL*) encoding the large subunit (LSU) of the primary carboxylase Rubisco (ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase). An early split after the primary endosymbiosis saw the diversification of the hypothetical ancestral flagellate into two main lineages (Leliaert *et al.*, 2011; 2012). First, the chlorophytes, which diversified early as prasinophytes in marine waters, which then gave rise to the core chlorophytes (chlorophytes without prasinophytes, Fig. S1, Supporting Information) in fresh or marine waters. Second, the streptophyte algae, which diversified in fresh water and some subaerial/terrestrial habitats (Harholt *et al.*, 2016). The split between chlorophyte and streptophyte probably occurred during the Neoproterozoic (between 1,000 and 541 million years ago; Becker, 2013; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). Extant photosynthetic chlorophyte and

streptophyte algae (as well as non-algal streptophytes, i.e. land plants) have a form 1B Rubisco. Selection pressures on the Rubisco catalytic properties are driven by the availability and diffusive supply of inorganic carbon, the CO₂:O₂ ratio and the development of any carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM) which improves the operating efficiency of Rubisco in many aquatic photosynthetic microorganisms (Tortell, 2000; Young *et al.*, 2012; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013; Griffiths *et al.*, 2017; Rickaby & Hubbard, 2019). The origins of the algal CCM could be related to equimolar CO₂:O₂ concentrations in surface waters around 500 million years ago (Griffiths *et al.*, 2017).

The challenge for inorganic carbon delivery within aquatic environments is that bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) or carbonate (CO₃²⁻) are often much more prevalent, and under current conditions, the concentration of CO₂ is often ~2,000 times lower in water than in air, and diffusion is 8,000 times slower (Raven *et al.*, 1985; Falkowski & Raven, 2007; Young *et al.*, 2012). A CCM is typically associated with active transport of bicarbonate across membranes, and catalytic conversion to CO₂ within a chloroplast microcompartment, the pyrenoid (Meyer *et al.*, 2017). Although the presence of a pyrenoid is a robust marker of the presence of a CCM, not all the eukaryotic algae with a CCM have a pyrenoid (Morita *et al.*, 1999; Raven *et al.*, 2005).

The CCM has been particularly well-defined in the model unicellular chlorophyte *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, where the pyrenoid is present with a clearly defined starch sheath, and the associated inner Rubisco matrix transversed by knotted thylakoid tubules, thought to be involved in the delivery of CO₂ within the matrix (Meyer & Griffiths, 2013; Engel *et al.*, 2015; Mackinder *et al.*, 2017; Meyer *et al.*, 2017; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019). The CCM is inducible following transfer from elevated to ambient CO₂, and a key linker protein (EPYC1) has been associated with the recruitment of Rubisco to the pyrenoid (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016; Freeman-Rosensweig *et al.*, 2017). This recruitment ultimately involves interactions with the Rubisco Small Subunit (SSU) (Wunder *et al.*, 2018; Atkinson *et al.*, 2019), presumably at the level of surface exposed α -helices (Meyer *et al.*, 2012). However, there has been little systematic analysis of the extent to which some form of carbon accumulation mechanism occurs across this chlorophyte clade, or comparative physiological and molecular studies on CCM characteristics or Rubisco kinetic properties, and whether these traits are captured across chlorophyte, prasinophyte and streptophyte algal lineages in *RbcS*.

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii has also been used as a model organism to explore the interactions between Rubisco LSU, SSU and catalytic properties. The eight identical 55-kDa LSUs assemble as four dimers, while two sets of four 15-kDa SSUs, top and tail the Rubisco holoenzyme. A central ‘solvent channel’ runs through Rubisco and the width of its aperture is dependent on the length of the β A- β B loop in each set of four SSUs capping the LSU octamer (Spreitzer, 2003) and interacting residues between LSUs and SSUs affect Rubisco operating efficiency and catalytic properties (Spreitzer *et al.*, 2005).

The overall aim of this study was to address the possible interactions between Rubisco SSU structure and phylogeny, and occurrence of any reported CCM or pyrenoid across the green algae.

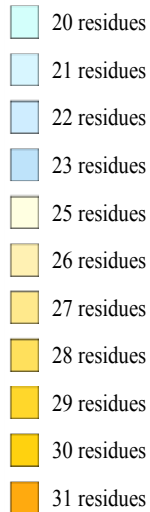
Specifically, this study sought to (i) develop a phylogeny for *RbcS* sequences in green algae as compared to a consensus phylogeny (e.g. Leliart *et al.*, 2012; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019), and compare the distribution of pyrenoid and CCM across the algal clades; (ii) to identify whether any selection pressure on residues within the SSU were associated with the broader phylogeny or were related to CCM activity. Our results reveal that a change in Rubisco SSU secondary structure (namely the β A- β B loop) is a distinctive trait of the division between core chlorophytes and streptophyte algae. This study also provides additional insights for selection pressures driving the evolution of green algae and photosynthetic processes, particularly during the transition to terrestrial plant life forms.

3.2 Results

3.2.1 The length of the β A- β B loop drives the phylogeny of *RbcS*

The protein phylogeny of *RbcS* was originally constructed to identify any residues specific to species with a pyrenoid as a determinant of CCM activity. Despite the low number of variable sites and the low posterior probabilities of some of the most recent nodes attributable to the brevity of the sequence, *RbcS* recapitulated at the phylum level the green lineage phylogeny (e.g. Leliart *et al.*, 2012; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). However, the present study found that species without a pyrenoid were dispersed throughout the whole *RbcS* phylogeny. Therefore, specific residues in the SSU α -helices (Meyer *et al.*, 2012) were not sufficient to explain the pyrenoid occurrence across the entire phylum (Figure 3.1). A

Colored ranges



Chapter 3: Role of the small subunit of Rubisco in the green algal phylogeny

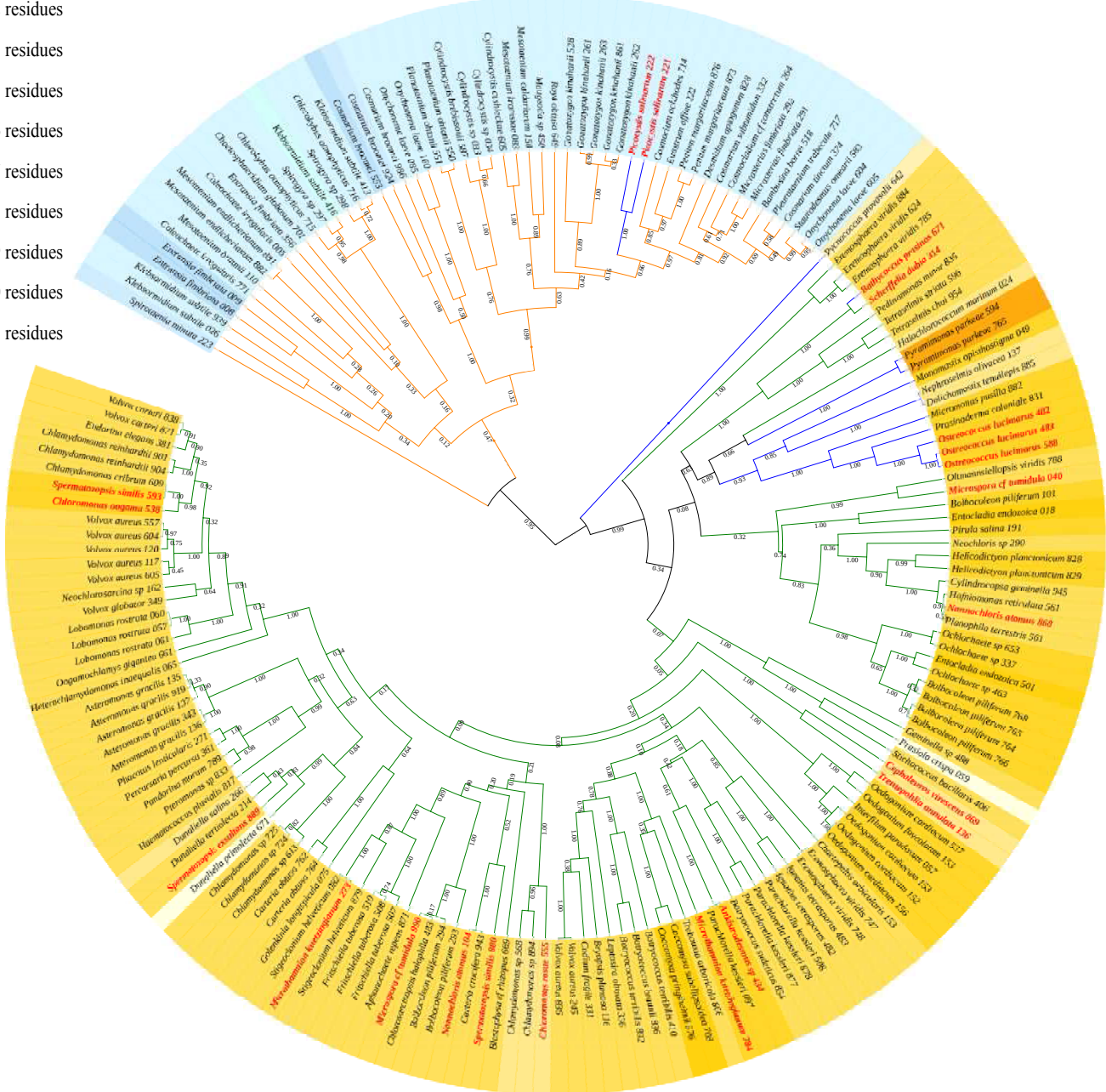


Figure 3.1 Protein phylogeny of the small subunit of Rubisco (*RbcS*) in green algae built with BEAST 2 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014). Branches were colored according to the different phylum [chlorophytes: green (with prasinophytes in blue); streptophyte algae: orange]. Species lacking pyrenoids are indicated in bold red font. Length of the β A- β B loop was mapped onto each species and highlighted by the colour chart in the top left corner (species with a β A- β B loop length superior or equal to 25 residues are highlighted in the different shade of orange whereas species with a loop length inferior to 25 are highlighted in the different shade of blue). The phylogeny is clustered in two main clades. The first includes all the chlorophytes (green branches) and some prasinophytes (blue branches) and shows a loop length greater than, or equal to 25 residues. The second cluster includes all the streptophyte algae (orange branches) and the remaining prasinophytes (blue branches) with a loop length lower than 25 residues. Species without a pyrenoid (red font) are distributed across the phylogeny and not clustered together. Posterior probabilities are shown along branches.

closer examination of the solvent-exposed residues (available for possible interactions with the Rubisco linker EPYC1) of the amino acids and their electrostatic properties in the two α -helices, hypothesised to be the key elements for the formation of a pyrenoid (Meyer *et al.*, 2012; Mackinder *et al.*, 2016), varied in their distribution (Figure 3.2). For example, *Spermatozopsis similis* (pyrenoid-less) exhibited α -helices identical to *Chl. reinhardtii* (pyrenoid-positive), and *Chloromonas oogama* (pyrenoid-less) differed by only one residue (Figure 3.2). The absence of any consistent pattern which could differentiate pyrenoid-less from pyrenoid-positive species suggests that neither the specific residues in the two α -helices and their properties nor the solvent-exposed residues, can singlehandedly explain pyrenoid occurrence in green algae, as we had hypothesized.

However, the *RbcS* phylogeny did systematically differentiate streptophyte algae and core chlorophytes, which were clustered separately into two sister clades (Figure 3.1). Prasinophytes clustered with the core chlorophytes, except *Picocystis salinarum*. The phylogenetic differentiation in *RbcS* clearly coincided with differences in the β A- β B loop length. Core chlorophytes and prasinophytes consistently showed a β A- β B loop length of 25 or more residues, whereas the vast majority of streptophyte algae exhibited a β A- β B loop length of less than 23 residues with 52 of the 58 sequences having a β A- β B loop 21 residues long. The short loop of *P. salinarum* (21 residues) matches that of *Picocystis* sp. (draft genome; Junkins *et al.* 2019). The nested position within streptophyte algae could be due to this singular property, although the overall short length of *RbcS* and low bootstrap values at internal branches were likely additional factors. Interestingly, the phylogeny of *RbcS* remained very similar without the β A- β B loop with the presence of the same three separate clusters (core chlorophytes, prasinophytes and streptophyte algae; Appendix 11) showing that the β A- β B loop length was not the only driver of the phylogeny of *RbcS*. *Picocystis salinarum* was once again clustered again with the streptophyte algae suggesting that the low support of the node leading to this species in the tree cannot entirely explain its clustering with the streptophyte algae. However, the difference in loop length between core chlorophytes and streptophyte algae clearly revealed different Rubisco structures between these two groups. With a wider central solvent channel due to the shorter β A- β B loop, streptophyte algae have a Rubisco structure more similar to that in land plants as embryophytes (Spreitzer, 2003).

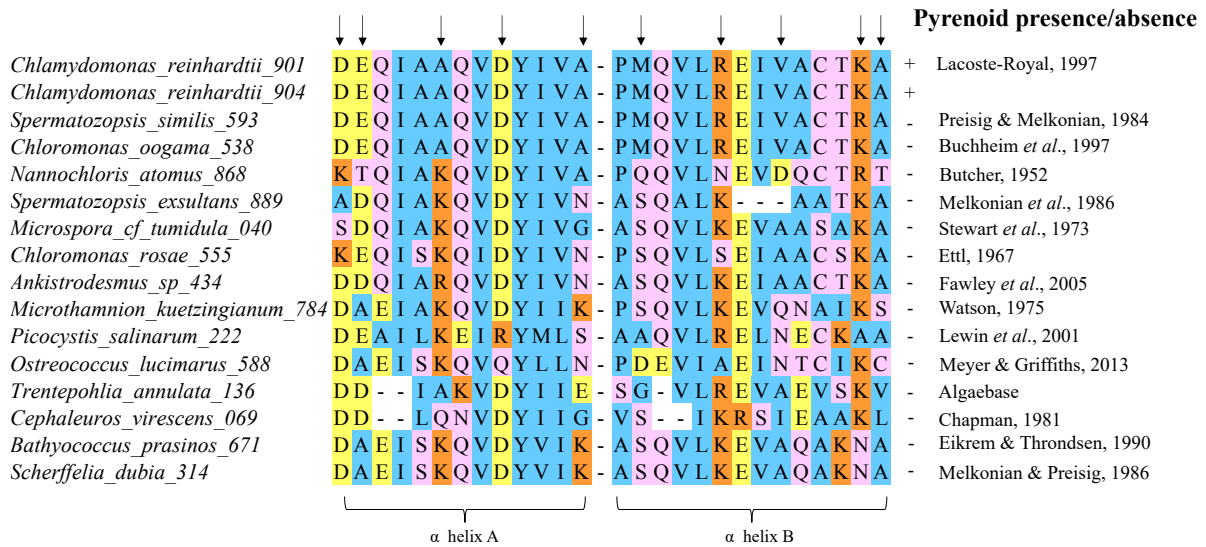


Figure 3.2 Comparison of the amino acids composition of the two Rubisco SSU α -helices for species without pyrenoid and compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (pyrenoid positive). Acid and polar residues are in yellow, basic and polar residues are in orange, non-polar neutral residues are in blue and polar neutral residues are in pink. Residues with a solvent-exposed side chain are indicated with a black arrow according to Meyer *et al.*, 2012.

3.2.2 *RbcS* is neither under positive or relaxed selection

As an additional test for residues under positive selection in *RbcS*, in association with a CCM or at the level of the SSU α -helices, 135 DNA sequences from green algae were used (Appendix 12). One Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT) for d_N/d_S heterogeneity across codons (M0-M3) was successfully performed and was significant, indicating expected heterogeneity in selective pressure across *RbcS* molecules ($2\Delta\ln L = 2312.99$, P -value < 0.0001 , $df=8$) (Table 3.1). Two LRTs were also performed to test for the presence of codons under positive selection (M7-M8 and M8-M8a) and both comparisons rejected models with positive selection (Table 3.1). The model M7 (which allows for 10 site classes, each with a $\omega > 1$) was selected in favour of the model M8 (11 sites classes with one of which allows for $\omega > 1$) and was consequently not significant ($2\Delta\ln L = -0.00049$, P -value $= 0.5$, $df=2$). The more stringent comparison between the model M8a (which is similar to M7 but which allows for an extra class of codons with $d_N/d_S=1$) and M8 was also not significant ($2\Delta\ln L = -0.07013$, P -value $= 0.5$, $df=1$) confirming the absence of codons under positive selection in *RbcS*. The absence of residues under positive selection suggests that the appearance of new residues would not confer selective advantages in *RbcS*, and particularly

at the level of the α -helices (consistent with observations arising from Figure 3.1 and 3.2, described above).

Table 3.1 Results of the three Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRTs) for positive selection using the site-models (M0-M8) (codeml) implemented in PAML (Yang, 2007) and their associated parameters.

	Number of classes (ω)	N ^a	Length (bp) ^b	LRT (2 Δ lnL)	p-value (P<0.05)	df ^c
M0	1	135	462	2312.99077	<0.0001	8
M3	5	135	462			
M7	10	135	462			
M8	11	135	462	0	0.5	2
M8a	11	135	462	0	0.5	1
M8	11	135	462			

a: Number of sequences analysed

b: length of *RbcS* sequences analysed

c: degrees of freedom

Branches under positive selection were successfully tested with the branch-model implemented in PAML. The LRT for heterogeneity across branches (H0-H1) was significant (2 Δ lnL=9.358, P -value=0.0011, df=1) (Table 3.2). However, background and foreground omega showed values less than 1, implying positive selection was absent among foreground branches ($\omega\alpha=0.082$; $\omega\beta=0.16 < 1$). These results suggest that the presence of variation in ω across branches in *RbcS*, but not significant enough to show positive selection, or any correlation with CCM occurrence.

Finally, tests for Relaxed selection were performed in order to see if the loss of amino acids at the level of the β A– β B loop observed during the transition from the chlorophytes to streptophyte algae could be due to Relaxed selection. All the tests were successfully performed (Appendix 13). All the K values were inferior to 1 (Table 3.3), except for the first test with a $K=1.512$, however, any of the tests showed significant p -values ($p>0.005$) meaning absence of relaxation in *RbcS*. Therefore, the change of β A– β B loop length observed in streptophyte algae could not be associated to presence of relaxed selection in *RbcS*.

Table 3.2 Results of the three LRTs for positive selection using the branch-models (H0-H1) (codeml) implemented in PAML (Yang, 2007) and their associated parameters.

	dN/dS	LRT (2ΔlnL)	p-value (P<0.05)	df
H0	$\omega=0.08445$			
H1	$\omega^a=0.08262$ $\omega^b=0.16371$	9.358	0.0011	1

a: omega for background branches

b: omega for foreground branches

Table 3.3 Summary of the different parameters obtained for test Relax Selection (Wertheim *et al.*, 2015) after 10 replicates. *K* represents the selection intensity parameter, *p* is the p-value and *LR* the Likelihood Ratio Test.

	K	p	LR	
All the streptophyte algae labelled (test n°1)	1.512	0.711	-98.38	Relaxation not significant
All the chlorophytes labelled (test n°2)	0.98	0.80	-30.52	Relaxation not significant
Basal branches of the tree labelled (test n°3)	0.85	0.78	-6.31	Relaxation not significant
Basal branch of the chlorophytes labelled (test n°4)	0.76	0.78	-6.91	Relaxation not significant
Basal branch of the streptophyte algae labelled (test n°5)	0.93	0.90	-9.20	Relaxation not significant

3.3 Discussion

3.3.1 Rubisco SSU residues do not systematically equate to a CCM.

There was no immediately apparent correlation between SSU amino-acid sequence and pyrenoid occurrence/inferred CCM activity across the newly-created phylogeny of *RbcS* for green algae. Our expectation was based on (i) the observations that the *RbcS* α -helices are important for pyrenoid formation in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Meyer *et al.*, 2012), as well as (ii) recent *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments showing that the SSU is needed to interact with the *Chlamydomonas* Rubisco linker EPYC1 (Wunder *et al.*, 2018; Atkinson *et al.*, 2019). Whether streptophyte pyrenoids assemble with an EPYC1 analogue is currently unknown. Based on the primary sequence alone, there are no EPYC1 homologues outside the Chlamydomonadales, so it would seem that other Rubisco aggregation mechanisms may occur in more distantly related lineages, perhaps through interactions with other elements of the SSU and/or the LSU, which is the *modus operandi* in some cyanobacterial carboxysomes (Long *et al.*, 2011; Oltrogge *et al.*, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2019). It would be interesting to determine whether the widespread occurrence of some form of pyrenoid across green algae was due to multiple independent origins of the algal CCM (Meyer *et al.*, 2017), as found in C₄ and CAM pathways (Sage *et al.*, 2011). However, the absence of a pyrenoid does not always equate to lack of a CCM (Giordano *et al.*, 2005), particularly in *Chloromonas*, which is closely related to *Chlamydomonas* (Morita *et al.*, 1999; Nozaki *et al.*, 2002; Pröschold *et al.*, 2001; Meyer *et al.*, 2017), and although the underlying mechanisms of carbon accumulation of such species remain unknown there is also a consistent relationship between carbon isotope composition and CCM activity in those closely related species (and will be investigated in subsequent Chapters in this Thesis).

Overall, detailed alignments of the *RbcS* α -helix residues did not discriminate between pyrenoid-positive and pyrenoid-negative species (Figure 3.1 and 3.2). The two *Chlamydomonas* *RbcS* isoforms (Goldschmidt-Clermont & Rahire, 1986) show inverse patterns of gene expression across the day-night cycle (Zones *et al.*, 2015). For the present study, it was not possible to establish the functionality of *RbcS* paralogues in terms of CCM expression (See Materials & Methods). Therefore, determining the exact number of copies, and their sequence specificity, for each of the pyrenoidless species would provide additional confirmation for the absence of specific residues essential for pyrenoid formation in green

algae. An extensive evaluation of positive selection also showed no significant shifts in *RbcS* amino acid residues associated with the CCM across the phylogeny (Table 3.1) whereas 13 residues under positive selection have been detected in *RbcS* in angiosperms (Yamada *et al.*, 2019). The absence of positive selection along branches leading to a pyrenoid could be an artefact of the small number of species *lacking* a pyrenoid within the green algae (Figure 3.1), or indeed those possessing some form of a CCM but lacking a pyrenoid structure (see above). A possible alternative explanation is that all green algae retained a pyrenoid-competent Rubisco SSU (as also supported by *in vitro* assays; Wunder *et al.*, 2018; Atkinson *et al.*, 2019) but that the absence of a pyrenoid is rather determined by the lack (ancestral or through secondary loss) of a Rubisco linker, of similar or different ancestry as the *Chl. reinhardtii* EPYC1 (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016). Here too, future comparative proteomic studies with pyrenoidless algal CCMs will help resolve this question .

3.3.2 Streptophyte algal Rubisco SSU structure is similar to land plants

The phylogeny of *RbcS* revealed a Rubisco structure in streptophyte algae similar to that of embryophytes, with SSUs possessing a shorter βA – βB loop and therefore a central solvent channel with a similar open structure as that shown for embryophytes (Spreitzer, 2003). Although the shorter loop in land plants has been well described (Spreitzer, 2003) and was probably thought to be a consequence of the transition from the aquatic environment to land, the presence of a similar structure in the streptophyte algae has not been previously reported. The phylogeny of *RbcS* showed that this loss of amino acids is more ancient, and probably occurred during the split between chlorophytes and streptophyte algae, which occurred somewhere between 736 Mya (Becker, 2013) and 1,000 Mya (early Neoproterozoic; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). The Rubisco structural change was not an isolated event at this time. The split between chlorophytes and streptophytes coincides with the appearance of multiple new traits (Hori *et al.*, 2014; Nishiyama *et al.*, 2018) such as lateral flagella, a flagellar peroxidase and also a Gap A/B gene duplication (McCourt *et al.*, 2004; Petersen *et al.*, 2006; Finet *et al.*, 2010). Interestingly, the photorespiratory pathway has been shown to differ between chlorophytes and streptophyte algae. Chlorophytes use a mitochondrial glycolate dehydrogenase, which produces NADH and H^+ whereas streptophytes use a peroxisomal glycolate oxidase which produces H_2O_2 for the conversion of glycolate to glyoxylate (Stabenau & Winkler, 2005).

In addition, the similar tree topologies of *RbcS* with or without the β A- β B loop gave us more insight on the overall evolutionary history of *RbcS*. Other residues outside the β A- β B loop within the amino acid sequences could help to differentiate chlorophytes from streptophyte algae. One explanation could come from the tight relationship between *rbcL* and *RbcS*. *RbcL* is known to be a good phylogenetical marker and co-evolution between *RbcS* and *rbcL* have been shown in land plants (Pei *et al.*, 2013; Yamada *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, residues in *RbcS* co-evolving with *rbcL* could also reflect the three divisions.

The role of the SSU and of the β A- β B loop in particular is not entirely understood but the central solvent channel may facilitate channelling of substrates and products to and from the active sites (Esquivel *et al.*, 2013). Spreitzer (2001; 2002) demonstrated the importance of the loop for holoenzyme assembly and showed that direct mutagenesis within the β A- β B loop changed Rubisco catalytic properties. However, these studies did not investigate the relationship to presence or absence of the pyrenoid in green algae. Direct substitution of a non-surface exposed residue, distant from the solvent channel, R71A, decreased Rubisco specificity and increased K_c and K_o values in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Spreitzer *et al.*, 2001) whereas suppressor substitutions of two SSU residues nearer the solvent channel, N54V and A57V, increased V_c , the specificity and the thermal stability of the large subunit L290F mutant enzyme (Du *et al.*, 2000). In addition, Spreitzer *et al.* (2005) demonstrated that the interface between SSU/LSU, far from the active sites, contributes to different catalytic properties between *Chl. reinhardtii* and *Spinacia oleracea*. Despite the change in Rubisco SSU structure between chlorophytes and streptophytes, and effect on solvent channel width and possible “suppressor” interactions between LSU and SSU (Spreitzer *et al.*, 2001, 2005), there was a continued need for CCMs across the entire phylogeny (Figure 3.1) which is reflected in the catalytic properties of the streptophyte algae.

In conclusion, this study has highlighted that Rubisco SSU structure effectively differentiates between streptophytes and core chlorophytes, with a transition occurring in the prasinophyte clade which contains mostly species with a long β A- β B loop. Otherwise, the *RbcS* phylogeny recaptures the latest consensus green algal phylogenies built from many marker genes, including *rbcL* (Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019).

Chapter 4: Rubisco and Carbon Concentration Mechanism (CCM) co-evolution across Chlorophytes and Streptophytes

This chapter can be found as part of: Rubisco and Carbon Concentration Mechanism (CCM) co-evolution across Chlorophytes and Streptophytes (Goudet MMM., Orr DJ., Melkonian M., Müller KH., Meyer MT., Carmo-Silva E. & Griffiths H. Submitted: 19 Nov. 2019; Decided: 31 Jan. 2020; manuscript under revision for resubmission; accepted: 23 March 2020).

4.1 Introduction

Following Chapter 3, it appears that there has been little systematic analysis of the extent to which some form of carbon accumulation mechanism occurs across this chlorophyte clade, or comparative physiological and molecular studies on CCM characteristics or Rubisco kinetic properties, and whether these traits are retained across chlorophyte, prasinophyte and streptophyte algal lineages in *RbcS*.

As previously explained in the General Introduction, natural variation in Rubisco catalytic properties exists among photosynthetic organisms (Jordan & Ogren, 1981). A shift in the catalytic parameters towards a higher turnover rate per active site (k_{cat}) and higher affinity for CO₂ (K_c) has been observed from cyanobacteria, chlorophyte to land plants (Badger *et al.*, 1998; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013). However, it has also been suggested that selective pressures on V_c and K_c could have been relaxed due to the saturating CO₂ environment provided by a CCM over evolutionary time (Tortell *et al.*, 2000; Young *et al.*, 2012; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013).

Surprisingly, no model organisms for physiological studies have been identified in streptophyte algae, despite the previous interest in using species with giant algal cells to characterise carbon uptake mechanisms (Lucas & Berry, 1985) and the recently published genome of *Chara braunii* (Nishiyama *et al.*, 2018). In addition, only few Rubisco catalytic properties are available for a few green alga species including *Euglena gracilis* (Yokota *et*

al., 1989), *Coccomyxa sp.* (Palmqvist *et al.*, 1995) or *Scenedesmus obliquus* (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Badger *et al.*, 1998) but none of them are streptophyte alga. Recent measurements have largely focussed on embryophytes (Kapralov *et al.*, 2010; Galmes *et al.*, 2014, 2015, 2016; Hermida-Carrera *et al.*, 2016; Orr *et al.*, 2016; Prins *et al.*, 2016) or core chlorophytes (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Spreitzer, 2003; Spreitzer *et al.*, 2005).

Therefore, this chapter set out *i)* to define key Rubisco catalytic properties for selected streptophyte algae, as compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and *ii)* to determine whether the catalytic properties of Rubisco across contrasting streptophyte algal groups reflected the overall phylogeny or specific activity of a CCM at the whole organism level.

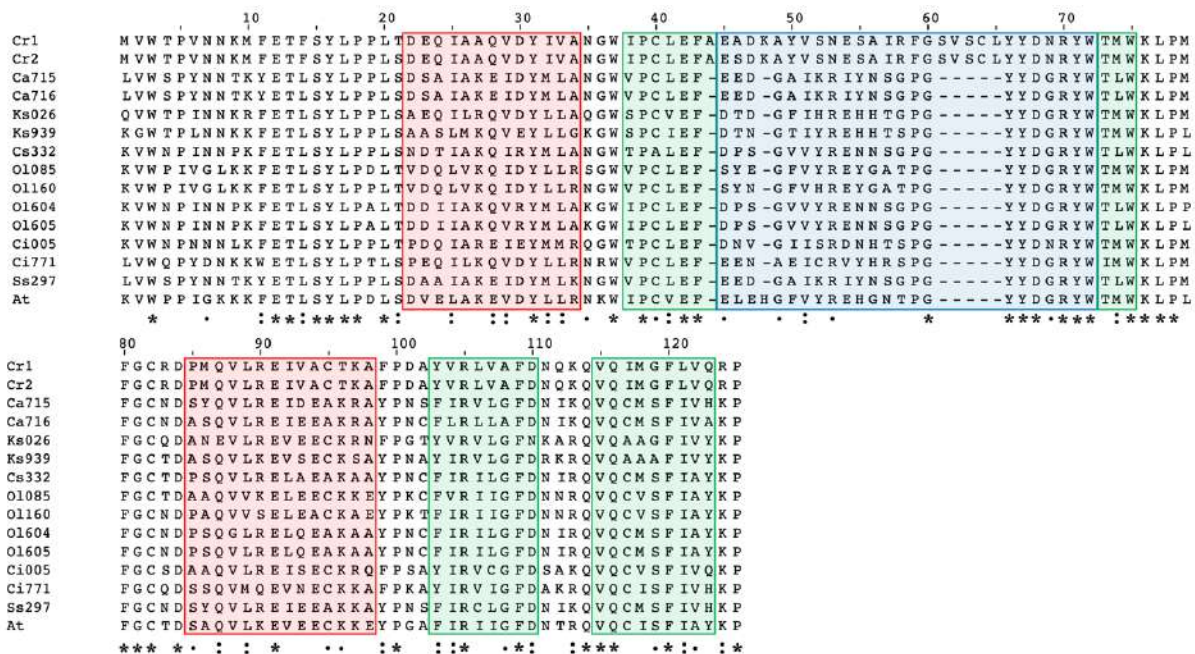


Figure 4.1 Subset alignment of sequences from the 1KP of the representative streptophyte algae Rubisco small subunit (*RbcS*) and their primary structures compared to the two copies of *RbcS* in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes, Cr1 and Cr2) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (At, land plants). Ca (*Chlorokybus atmophyticus*), Ks (*Klebsormidium subtile*), Cs (*Cosmarium subtumidum*), Ol (*Onychonema laeve*), Ci (*Coleochaete irregularis*) and Ss (*Spirogyra sp.*). Red boxes indicate residues of the two α -helices, green boxes indicate residues of the four β sheets and the blue box includes all the residues of the β A- β B loop. The multiple alignment clearly shows the absence of five amino acids from the sites 61 to 66 compared to the chlorophyte *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. * indicates positions which have a single fully conserved residues; «» indicates a site belonging to group exhibiting strong similarity (strong score >0.5); «.» indicates sites belonging to a group from weak similarity (weak score <=0.5).

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Streptophyte algae share Rubisco catalytic properties with both chlorophytes and embryophytes

A more detailed investigation of Rubisco catalytic properties was undertaken in order to explore whether any evolutionary progression towards land plant characteristics was evident in streptophyte algae. The multiple alignment of *RbcS* in six representative streptophyte algae selected for this component of the study confirmed the deletion of five amino-acids in this group compared to *Chl. reinhardtii* (Figure 4.1; Spreitzer, 2003). This shortens the loop between the first and the second β -sheets, reducing the constriction at the entry of the holoenzyme's solvent channel. Rubisco catalytic properties at 25°C for the six green algae are shown in Table 4.1, including *Chl. reinhardtii* which was used as a control, and to compare this analytical system with previous measurements for this species, albeit of different genetic parentage and analytical methods (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Satagopan & Spreitzer, 2008). The absence of measurements for *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* was due to many unsuccessful attempts at Rubisco extraction. In *Chl. reinhardtii*, Rubisco catalytic properties varied slightly from previous measurements (Satagopan & Spreitzer, 2008; Jordan & Ogren, 1981) but remained in the same range. Michaelis-Menten constant for carboxylation (K_c) showed similar values (39.6 and 34 μM) whereas the Rubisco turnover rate (k_{cat}) was somewhat higher in this study compared to the value found in Satagopan & Spreitzer (2008). The streptophyte algae did not show a clear systematic shift from chlorophyte towards land plant catalytic properties despite similar Rubisco SSU structural changes. Of the five streptophyte algae, only *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* showed a higher affinity for CO₂ (lower K_c values), closer to land plant values (e.g. *Arabidopsis thaliana*; 10.7 μM) with K_c values of 18.7 and 27.3 μM respectively (Table 4.1). *Cosmarium subtumidum*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Coleochaete scutata* had a relative low affinity for CO₂ with K_c values in the range of the core chlorophytes or slightly higher (45.3, 49.1 and 43.1 μM respectively).

Table 4.1 Kinetic parameters of Rubisco at 25°C in streptophyte algae in comparison to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (land plant) previously measured using the same protocol (Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). Species are ordered from the most distant species (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, Chlorophytes, Chlorophyceae) from land plants to the closest (*Coleochaete scutata*, Coleochaetophyceae, Streptophytes). K_c is the Michaelis-Menten constant for carboxylation under 0% O₂; K_c^{air} is the Michaelis-Menten constant for carboxylation under 21% O₂ and k_{cat} is the Rubisco turnover rate. Values are means \pm SEM.

Species name	n ^a	k_{cat} (S ⁻¹)	K_c (μM)	K_c^{air} (μM)	k_{cat}/K_c	k_{cat}/K_c^{air}
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	3	3.25 \pm 0.18	39.6 \pm 5.1	50.9 \pm 7.0	0.086 \pm 0.015	0.067 \pm 0.011
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	6	3.79 \pm 0.67	18.7 \pm 1.4	28.8 \pm 2.1	0.228 \pm 0.070	0.144 \pm 0.040
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i>	4	2.51 \pm 0.45	45.3 \pm 13.1	55.6 \pm 12.7	0.061 \pm 0.008	0.040 \pm 0.006
<i>Onychonema laeve</i>	4	2.39 \pm 0.44	27.3 \pm 5.5	53.8 \pm 12.9	0.088 \pm 0.003	0.052 \pm 0.010
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp	5	4.90 \pm 0.32	49.1 \pm 8.0	56.9 \pm 4.3	0.108 \pm 0.015	0.086 \pm 0.010
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	4	1.67 \pm 0.29	43.1 \pm 9.8	62.6 \pm 14.6	0.047 \pm 0.013	0.032 \pm 0.009
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 2017)		4.1 \pm 0.1	10.7 \pm 0.7	15.8 \pm 1.0	-	0.25 \pm 0.01

a: number of replicates

The catalytic turnover rate (k_{cat}) showed a trend towards lower values. *Onychonema laeve* and *Cosmarium subtumidum*, both members of the Zygnematophyceae, had similar k_{cat} values (2.39 and 2.51 s⁻¹ respectively). *Spirogyra* sp. appeared to be an exception with a high k_{cat} value compared to the other streptophyte algae (4.90 s⁻¹), similar to *A. thaliana* (4.1 s⁻¹, Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). *Coleochaete scutata* showed the lowest k_{cat} of all the streptophyte algae (1.67 s⁻¹). Higher K_c is usually correlated to a higher k_{cat} and a lower specificity factor (Badger, 1987; von Caemmerer & Quick, 2000; Tcherkez *et al.*, 2006; Savir *et al.*, 2010; Tcherkez, 2013). *Klebsormidium subtile* presented the highest value for carboxylation catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_c^{air}) (0.14 s⁻¹ μM⁻¹), and whilst this was the highest streptophyte algae value determined, it remained well below that of land plants like *A. thaliana* (Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). The remaining streptophyte algae displayed lower efficiency, with *Coleochaete scutata* showing the lowest efficiency (0.032 s⁻¹ μM⁻¹).

4.2.2 Streptophyte algae have a CCM, albeit leaky in some species

Oxygen evolution measurements, pyrenoid imaging and δ¹³C were used to fully characterise CCM activity in the different streptophyte algae and to investigate whether CCM activity was associated with Rubisco catalytic properties. Oxygen evolution was used to determine the whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon and therefore the extent of any inducible carbon concentrating mechanism (Table 4.2,3; Figure 4.2). The photosynthetic K_{0.5} (Ci) value (Table 4.2; Figure 4.2) of the wild-type *Chl. reinhardtii* under low CO₂ showed a strong affinity for Ci (54 μM Ci), similar to previous values in the literature and in the range of photosynthetic responses of cells expressing a CCM of 10-100 μM Ci (Mitchell *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014). *Klebsormidium subtile*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Coleochaete scutata* showed a whole cell affinity for Ci in the range of *Chl. reinhardtii* with K_{0.5} ranging from 45 to 54 μM Ci, consistent with a fully functional CCM. *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*, *Cosmarium subtumidum* and *Onychonema laeve* exhibited a c. 20% lower apparent affinity for CO₂ compared to the other species (K_{0.5} 62, 64 and 62 μM Ci respectively) suggestive of CCM activity. Student's t-tests statistically confirmed the lower affinities of these three species compared to *Spirogyra* sp., *Coleochaete scutata*, *Cosmarium subtumidum* and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (p-values<0.05; Table 4.4) except when compared to *Klebsormidium subtile* (p-value=0.83; 0.69 and 0.9). Photosynthetic K_{0.5} (Ci) values of all the species grown under high CO₂ confirmed the absence of CCM activity under such

conditions (Table 4.3; Figure 4.2), and thereby the inducible character of the CCM in all species under examination.

Table 4.2 Whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon in the six streptophyte algae representative species and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) grown under low CO₂ conditions (0.04% CO₂) and their associated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for organic matter. Species are ordered from the most distant species from land plants (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, Chlorophytes, Chlorophyceae) to the closest (*Coleochaete scutata*, Coleochaetophyceae, Charophytes). Values are means \pm SEM.

Species name	K _{0.5} (Ci) (μM)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> (n=3)	54 \pm 23	-18.86 \pm 0.01
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i> (n=3)	62 \pm 26	-18.36 \pm 0.02
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i> (n=3)	53 \pm 2	-21.18 \pm 0.02
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i> (n=3)	64 \pm 32	-15.80 \pm 0.03
<i>Onychonema laeve</i> (n=3)	62 \pm 40	-21.31 \pm 0.03
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp. (n=3)	48 \pm 38	-17.85 \pm 0.04
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i> (n=3)	45 \pm 23	-18.50 \pm 0.09

Table 4.3 Whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon in the six streptophyte algae representative species and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) grown under high CO₂ conditions (5% CO₂) and their associated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for organic matter. Species are ordered from the most distant species (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, Chlorophytes, Chlorophyceae) away from land plants to the closest (*Coleochaete scutata*, Coleochaetophyceae, Streptophytes). Vales are means \pm SEM.

Species name	K _{0.5} (Ci) (μM)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> (n=3)	149 \pm 24	-58.78 \pm 0.05
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i> (n=3)	120 \pm 50	-45.43 \pm 0.03
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i> (n=3)	356 \pm 282	-61.39 \pm 0.03
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i> (n=3)	261 \pm 124	-62.00 \pm 0.14
<i>Onychonema laeve</i> (n=3)	264 \pm 54	-45.89 \pm 0.08
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp. (n=3)	566 \pm 153	-58.79 \pm 0.03
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i> (n=3)	599 \pm 164	-42.90 \pm 0.18

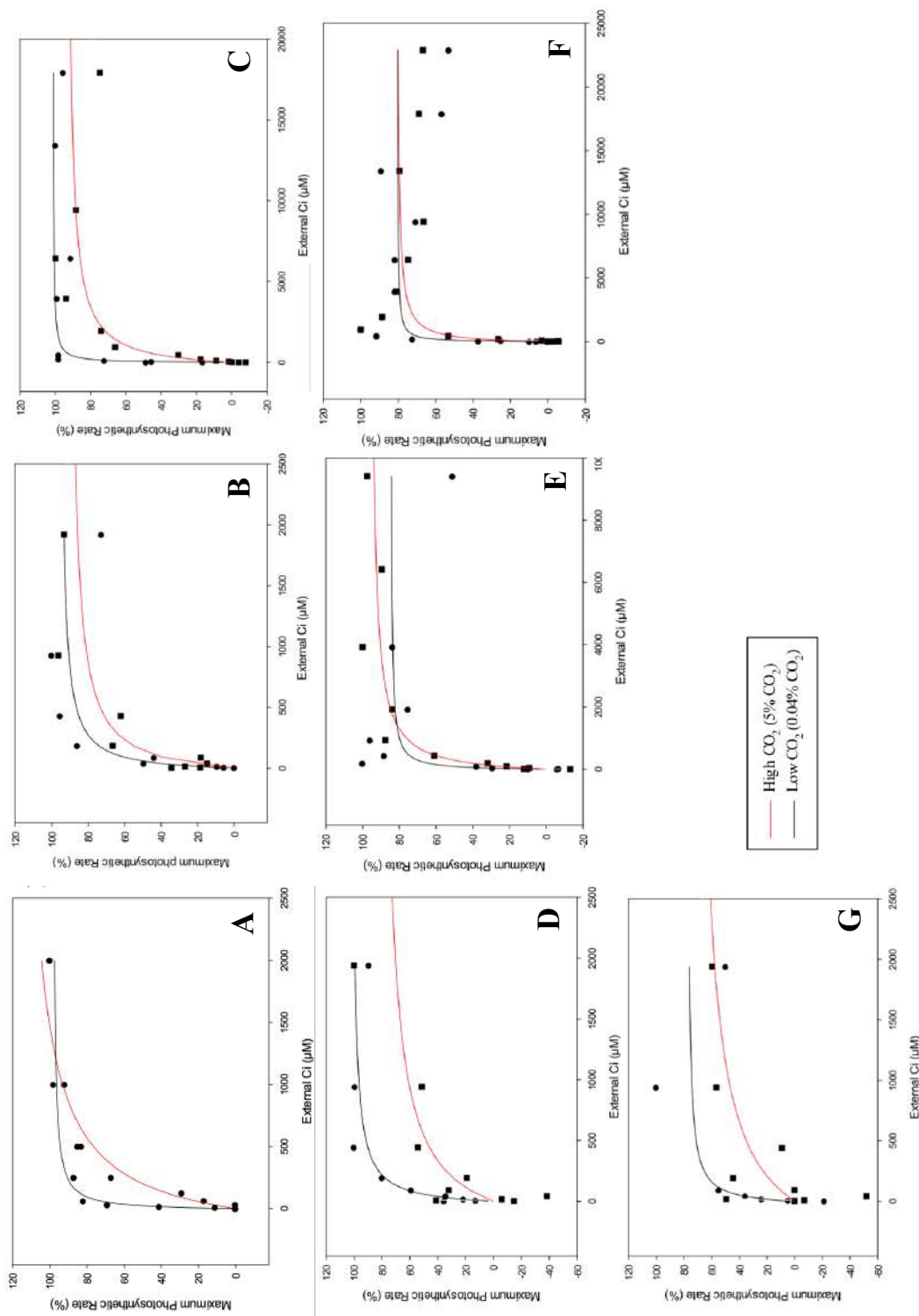


Figure 4.2 Oxygen evolution activity of the six streptophytes algae grown under low (0.04% CO₂; black curves, black dots) and high (5% CO₂; red curves, black squares) CO₂ conditions compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (chlorophytes). **A.** *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*; **B.** *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*; **C.** *Coleochaete scutata*; **D.** *Klebsormidium subtile*; **E.** *Onychonema laevis*; **F.** *Cosmarium subtumidum*; **G.** *Spirogyra* sp.

Table 4.4 Summary of the t-tests performed on the $K_{0.5}$ values to compare species with an apparent whole-cell lower affinity with the other streptophyte algae.

T-tests between	t	df	p-value
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i> VS			
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	0.2	4	0.8303
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp	27.3	4	0.0000
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	18.0	4	0.0001
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	13.6	4	0.0002
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i> VS			
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	0.4	4	0.6936
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp	24.9	4	0.0000
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	18.7	4	0.0000
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	14.3	4	0.0001
<i>Onychonema laeve</i> VS			
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	0.1	4	0.9014
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp	18.5	4	0.0001
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	14.9	4	0.0001
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	8.9	4	0.0009

Stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) for organic matter was also used as a second proxy for CCM activity in the different species (Meyer *et al.*, 2008) (Table 4.2). *Coleochaete scutata*, *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Cosmarium subtumidum* appeared to be isotopically enriched at -15.8 to -18.8‰ (Table 4.2), values close to *Chl. reinhardtii* (-18.9‰) and close to the upper range typically seen in C_4 terrestrial plants and consistent with a fully-functioning CCM (Raven *et al.*, 1982). On the other hand, *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* were somewhat isotopically depleted ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -21.1 and -21.3‰ respectively) compared to the other species, with values intermediate between typical C_3 and C_4 plants (O’Leary, 1988, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of C_3 plants range from -25 to -29‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of C_4 plants range from -12 to -16‰) and consistent with a CCM phenotype prone to leakiness (retro-diffusion of CO_2 : Meyer *et al.*, 2008) or limited carbon accumulation capacity.

Taken together, these observations reveal that Rubisco catalytic properties correlate to some extent with the strength of CCM activity. Similarly to *Chl. reinhardtii*, the three streptophytes algae *Cosmarium subtumidum*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Coleochaete scutata*

revealed a fully functioning CCM (low whole-cell affinity, $K_{0.5}$, and low carbon isotope discrimination) but lower Rubisco catalytic affinity for inorganic carbon (high K_c values), whereas *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* have a less effective CCM but higher affinity for inorganic carbon in terms of Rubisco catalytic properties (low K_c values). Therefore, in the presence of a less-effective CCM, Rubisco catalytic properties for *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* show a systematic shift towards values more typically associated with land plants.

Finally, electronic microscopy was used to diagnose the presence/absence of a pyrenoid in the algal material used in the present study, as an additional diagnostic for an active biophysical CCM. The presence of a pyrenoid was successfully confirmed for all the species except for *Coleochaete scutata* for which tissue embedding was unsuccessful. Presence and morphology of a pyrenoid in that species had been previously published (McKay *et al.*, 1991). CCM activities were supported by the presence of a pyrenoid in all the species (Figure 4.3). *Cosmarium subtumidum* (Figure 4.3b), *Onychonema laeve* (Figure 4.3d), *Coleochaete scutata* (Figure 4.3f) and *Spirogyra* sp. (Figure 4.3e) exhibited pyrenoid morphologies similar to *Chl. reinhardtii* with a spheroidal electron dense matrix traversed by multiple tubules, and a single layered peripheral starch sheath. (Figure 4.3; Appendices 14 and 15). There were, however, differences in the fine structure (starch sheath thickness and continuity, density of thylakoid tubules network) that perhaps provide clues to the variability in $K_{0.5}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements. *Klebsormidium subtile* lacked a peripheral starch sheath (Figure 4.3a; Appendix 16) although a starch sheath may occur in *Klebsormidium subtile* dependent on growth stage or light intensity (M. Melkonian, unpublished observations). *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* had multiple layers of short starch plates surrounding the matrix (Figure 4.3c; Appendix 17). The network of cross-pyrenoidal tubules was regular and dense in *Cosmarium* and *Chlorokybus* (Figure 4.3b, c).

Overall, the results show that Rubisco catalytic properties are CCM dependent. However, at this stage, it remains difficult to differentiate limitations in carbon uptake versus leakiness of CO_2 as the selective pressure operating on Rubisco, and more detailed physiological experiments are warranted to fully characterize these contrasting processes.

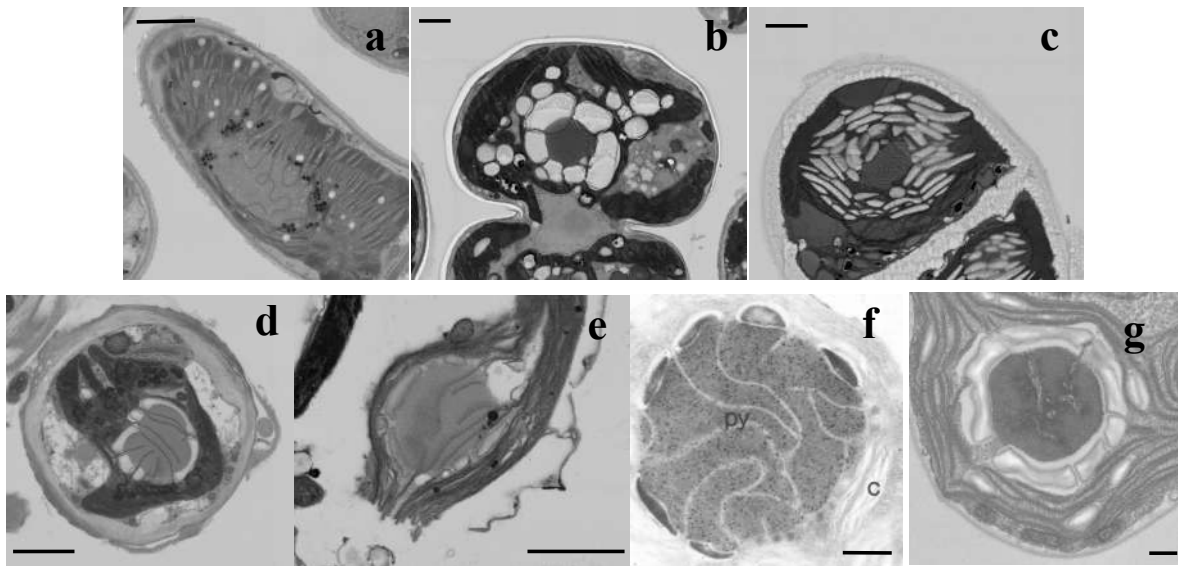


Figure 4.3 Electron micrographs (EM) images of the six representative streptophyte algae and of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (a: *Klebsormidium subtile*, b: *Cosmarium subtumidum*, c: *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*, d: *Onychonema laeve*, e: *Spirogyra* sp., f: *Coleochaete scutata*; McKay *et al.*, 1991 (py=pyrenoid) , g: *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*). Three distinct pyrenoid morphologies can be observed in the streptophytes: Rubisco matrix enclosed by one layer of starch plates (b, d, e, f and g); pyrenoid enclosed by multiple starch grains (c); and pyrenoid without observable starch sheaths (a). Bars: 2 μm (a to e) and 0.5 μm (f and g).

4.3 Discussion

4.3.1 Rubisco catalytic properties in green algae depend on CCM efficiency

The above observations led to the investigation of Rubisco catalytic properties within the streptophyte algae and their associated physiological CCM activity. Streptophyte algae are difficult to investigate physiologically. Oxygen electrode measurements were also extremely challenging (Table 4.2-3; Figure 4.2).

Despite the clear structural change associated with the βA – βB loop length (see Chapter 3), Rubisco catalytic properties remained generally similar to chlorophytes (Table 4.1) without systematic shift towards values associated with land plants (Satagopan & Spreitzer, 2008; Kapralov *et al.*, 2010; Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). Over the six streptophyte algae, only *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* showed K_c values in this lower range. Direct mutagenesis has shown the importance of the SSU βA – βB loop in Rubisco catalytic properties (See Introduction, paragraph 1.6) but the data in the present study suggested that they were more influenced by the effectiveness of the CCM, consistent with systematic changes in carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}C$: Table 4.2). Carbon isotopes have been used to infer leakiness of CCMs found in algae and hornworts (Meyer *et al.*, 2008). Although whole cell inorganic carbon (Ci) uptake affinity was similar for all species under ambient growth conditions ($K_{0.5}$, Table 4.2).

The weaker CCM activities (identified through more negative $\delta^{13}C$ values: Table 4.3) in *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve*, were associated with the highest affinity of Rubisco for CO_2 (K_c , Table 4.1). The importance of the CCM in shaping the adaptation within Rubisco catalytic properties has been a long-standing hypothesis (Tortell, 2000; Young *et al.*, 2012; Meyer *et al.*, 2013, Galmes *et al.*, 2014, 2016, 2019; Griffiths *et al.*, 2017), consistent with the shifts seen in C_4 Rubisco (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Sage, 2002; Kubien *et al.*, 2008). Our results show that Rubisco catalytic properties for this representative range of streptophyte algae are adapted to the presence of the CCM.

A strong CCM (uptake and conversion of inorganic carbon) or reduced retrodiffusion (leakiness) is partly consistent with pyrenoid presence for these two species (with either a naked pyrenoid or simple starch sheath: Figure 4.3 a, d, respectively). In addition, *Klebsormidium subtile* has often been reported to be a cosmopolitan species, colonising a great variety of aquatic and terrestrial habitats (Table 2.2; Materials & Methods; Hoffmann, 1989; Rindi *et al.*, 2011; Mikhailyuk *et al.*, 2015). The Rubisco catalytic properties found in

Klebsormidium subtile would place this species as an intermediate between obligate aquatic green algae and land plants. The future study of real subaerial algae such as *Klebsormidium flaccidum* or *Mesotaenium endlicherianum* would allow a more complete understanding of the photosynthetic adaptation to life on land. In the absence of the liquid boundary layer impeding CO₂ diffusion on land which could affect Rubisco catalytic properties (Raven *et al.*, 1985; Sáez *et al.*, 2017), the naked pyrenoid in *Klebsormidium subtile* would account for the more land-plant-like Rubisco catalytic properties and a reliance on direct diffusive CO₂ supply.

The co-evolution of Rubisco and CCMs has been demonstrated in multiple non-green photosynthetic organisms (Badger *et al.*, 1998).). Diatoms and haptophytes, which possess Form 1D Rubisco, are known to carry most of the oceanic photosynthesis (Delwiche & Palmer, 1997; Yoon *et al.*, 2002; Falkowski *et al.*, 2004). In these groups, Rubisco affinity for CO₂ (K_c) exhibits larger variations, exceeding those of C₄ plant Rubisco suggesting a large diversity of CCM strengths (Young *et al.*, 2016; Heureux *et al.*, 2017). In addition, the CO₂:O₂ ratio around the active site led to the suggestion that pyrenoids could have an oxygen exclusion function (McKay & Gibbs, 1991; Griffiths *et al.*, 2017). In land plants, Rubisco catalytic properties have been shown to be linked to changes in the atmospheric CO₂:O₂ ratio over time as well as temperature, in addition to leaf architecture, morphology and conductance (Beerling *et al.*, 2001; Franks & Beerling, 2009; Haworth *et al.*, 2011; Galmes *et al.*, 2014; 2015; Sharwood *et al.*, 2016; Conesa *et al.*, 2019). As the atmospheric CO₂:O₂ ratio decreased over time, Galmes *et al.*, (2014) showed that land plants developed a Rubisco that was more efficient at carboxylation (higher k_{cat}/K_c ratio) with increased affinity for CO₂ (lower K_c) but slower carboxylation rate (k_{cat}). Alongside this changes in catalytic properties, the proportion of soluble protein present as Rubisco increased, counteracting somewhat the effect of decrease in carboxylation rate (Galmes *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, higher temperatures increase maximum carboxylase turnover rate (k_{cat}) of Rubisco and decrease CO₂ affinity (Bernacchi *et al.*, 2001; Galmes *et al.*, 2015, 2016).

4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, the Rubisco catalytic properties in streptophyte algae suggests that the activity or strength of any CCM, which may have arisen because of limitations in bulk CO₂ delivery to Rubisco in the aquatic milieu, is associated with the retention of a lower affinity (high K_c)

Rubisco. We showed that the extent of adaptation which occurs should either cause CCM activity to be reduced, or indeed lost during the transition to land, as the reliance on gaseous diffusion to deliver CO₂ to Rubisco began to increase. Overall, this study shows rather than being intransigent and slow, Rubisco catalytic properties adapt to local conditions of CO₂ availability in green algae. This is consistent with the changes seen in Rubisco from C₄ (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Sage, 2002; Kubien *et al.*, 2008) and CAM plants (Griffiths *et al.*, 2008), which have been associated with operating within a CCM for the past 5-10 million years. Based on this study, the selective pressures driven by local conditions of photosynthetic CO₂ supply are more likely to explain the shifts in Rubisco catalytic properties during life on land, rather than any long term transition seen through cyanobacteria, algae to land plants, and highlights a dynamic relationship between Rubisco catalytic properties and CCM activity.

Chapter 5: Comparative analysis of the morphology and the physiology of two closely related genera: *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*.

5.1 Introduction

Chapters 3 and 4 focused on the links between Rubisco SSU, Rubisco kinetics and CCM in a phylogenetic context. The co-evolution between Rubisco kinetics and CCM gave us more insight into photosynthesis in green algae. However, the phylogeny of *RbcS* did not help us to understand either pyrenoid occurrence or to identify specific residues within the 2 α -helices. Newly identified components, such as EPYC1, that interact directly with Rubisco are essential to obtain a normal pyrenoid, (Sections 1.4, 3.1, Mackinder *et al.*, 2016). Analysis of mutants and crystallographic work is underway to establish, how this linker protein interacts with Rubisco SSU in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. As green algae comprise a broad range of species expressing different levels of CCM and/or a pyrenoid they are ideal models in which to understand the natural variation in CCM occurrence. However, the physiological mechanisms behind this range of CCM expression is still unknown.

The overall aim of this chapter was therefore to explore this diversity of CCM by characterising the physiology of organisms exhibiting these natural variations and establish which could be good candidates for future engineering work.

5.1.1 The absence of pyrenoid, a long-standing observation

Used as a taxonomic marker since the middle of the 20th century, it was not until the 21st century that physiologists really appreciated the importance of the pyrenoid in aquatic photosynthesis. The pyrenoid is a widespread trait across the green alga species, however, the lack of pyrenoid was observed in a minority of genera (*Chloromonas*, *Coccomyxa* or *Spermatozopsis*). Multiple independent origins of the pyrenoid have been demonstrated in hornworts (Villarreal &

Table 5.1 Name, algal collection numbers and habitat of the species used in this chapter.

Species name	Habitats
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	Stagnant water, damp soil, freshwater, seawater, snow algae
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i> UTEX LB 1969	Snow, Cascade Mountains, Oregon, USA
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i> UTEX 578	Soil extract
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i> UTEX LB 492	Temperate, Bloomington, Indiana, USA, Yellowwood fish ponds
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i> UTEX B 1337	Soil, High Tatra Mountains, Czech Republic
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i> UTEX LB 1970	Snow, Todd Lake, Cascade Range, USA

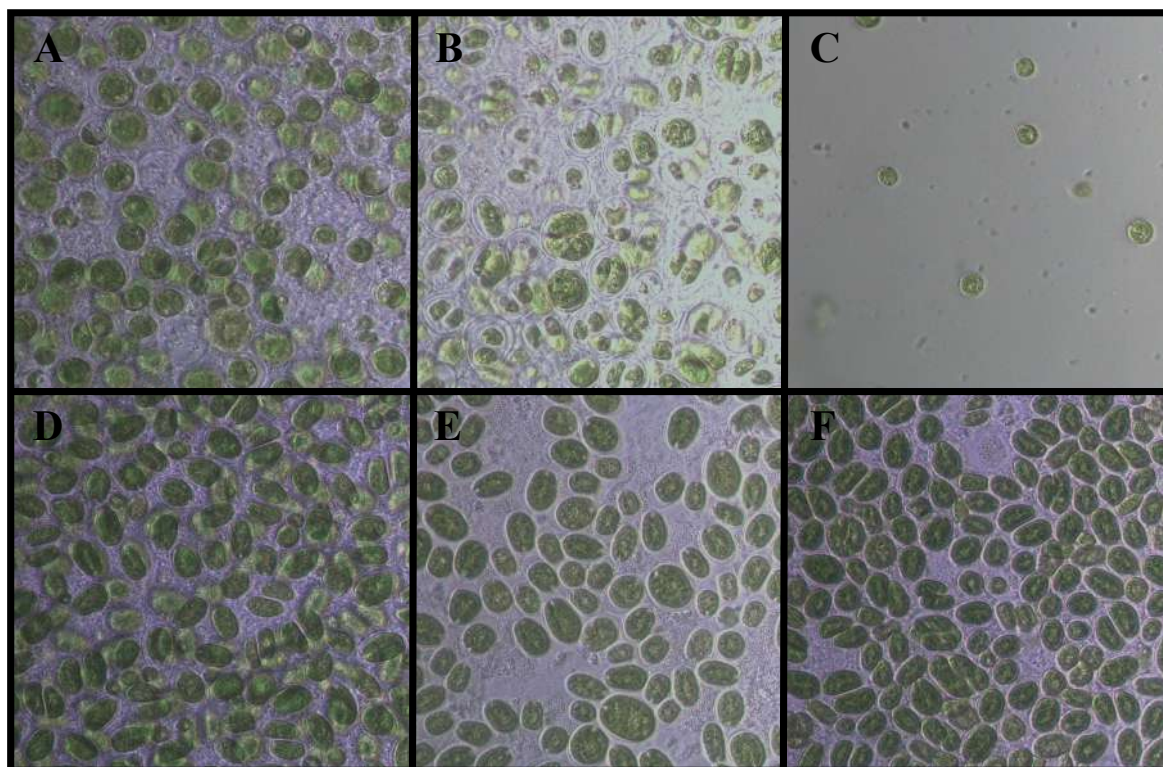


Figure 5.1 Optical microscopy images of the 5 different strains of *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* (A: *Chlamydomonas augustae*; B: *Chlamydomonas mutabilis*; C: *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*; D: *Chloromonas serbinowii*; E: *Chloromonas rosae*; F: *Chloromonas clathrata*). Pictures taken with Nikon 40X/0.75 DIC M/N2.

Renner, 2012), the only land plants expressing a pyrenoid, whilst C₄ and CAM photosynthesis probably evolved well over 100 times in land plants (Section 1.4; Sage *et al.*, 2011; Edwards, 2019). Although a few reports (Nozaki *et al.*, 2002; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013) have started to demonstrate the independent origins of the algal pyrenoid, no study to date has reported the origins of the pyrenoid across the full green algae lineages.

The lack of pyrenoid in some species is now widely accepted (Raven *et al.*, 2005) but the underlying mechanisms which could explain how these organisms deal with the absence of CCM (*e.g.* inorganic carbon uptake) and thus rely exclusively on diffusive entry of CO₂, remain unknown.

5.1.2 *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*: two closely related genera

The Chlamydomonales is one of the larger orders in the green algae with more than 1,700 species (Fritsch & West, 1927). Among all these species, two genera are of particular interest: *Chloromonas* and *Chlamydomonas*. The genus *Chlamydomonas* is well known because it includes the alga study model *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and a great variety of other species such as *Chlamydomonas augustae* or *Chlamydomonas radiata* (Buchheim *et al.*, 1997). The unicellular and biflagellate *Chloromonas* are morphologically fairly similar to *Chlamydomonas*, but conspicuously lack a pyrenoid (Ettl, 1967; 1970, 1983; Iyengar & Desikachary, 1981). *Chloromonas* are usually found in cold habitats or as snow algae [Ettl, 1970; Hoham 1975, 1977, 1979 (Table 5.1)] whereas *Chlamydomonas* species are quite ubiquitous, colonising habitats from stagnant water and damp soil, to fresh and seawater (Table 5.1).

The relationship between these two genera has been subjected to multiple studies (Buchheim *et al.*, 1997; Pröschold *et al.*, 2001; Nozaki *et al.*, 2002). The polyphyly of *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* is now well established, but all the phylogenetic reconstructions were based on the analyses of single markers (18S and three chloroplastic genes) (Figure 5.2) leading to different tree topologies. However, Nozaki *et al.* (2002) were the first to look at these different phylogenetic trees in taking into account the pyrenoid occurrence in the different strains (Figure 5.2; C-D). They not only showed once again that *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* were polyphyletic, they highlighted that the pyrenoid could have been lost and regained several times. In addition, Morita *et al.* (1998, 1999) showed that the absence of pyrenoid was not necessarily linked to the absence of CCM. Therefore, the observations made by Morita first followed by Nozaki's work led to a greater interest in *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains to study and understand pyrenoid occurrence in genera

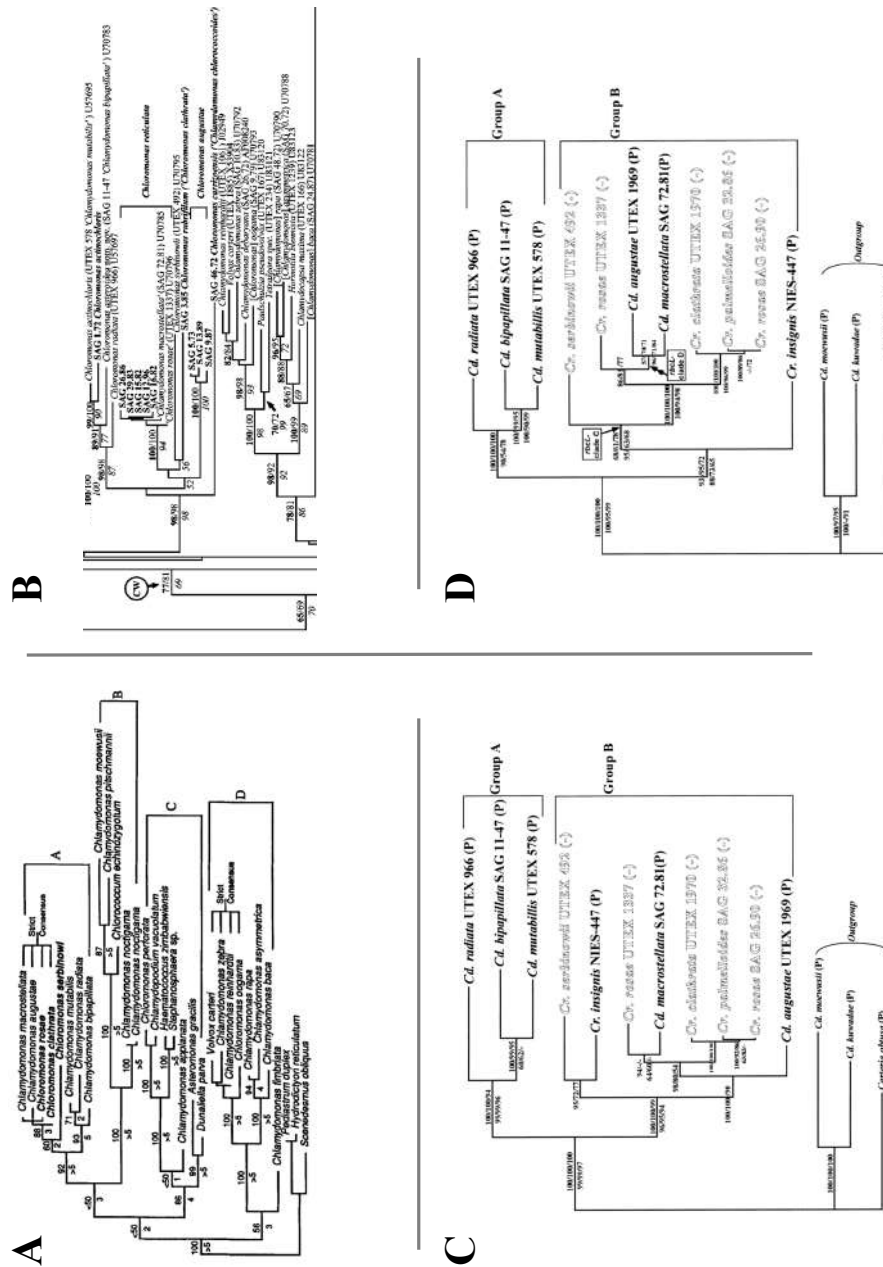


Figure 5.2 Summary of the different phylogenetic reconstructions of *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains in the literature. A: Buchheim *et al.*, 1997 based on 18S B: Pröschold *et al.*, 2001 C: Nozaki *et al.*, 2002 built with *atpB* D: Nozaki *et al.*, 2002 built with *rbcL*.

phylogenetically close to each other.

5.1.3 Objectives of this study

Inorganic carbon uptake pathways in green algae have been subjected to a lot of publications over the years (*Ulva lactuca*; Axelsson *et al.*, 1995; *Chlorella saccharophila*, Gehl *et al.*, 1990; *Scenedesmus obliquus*; Palmqvist *et al.*, 1988). Algae have generally developed different strategies in order to optimize their carbon uptake mechanisms. The availability of the CO₂ in the aquatic environments is deeply related to local ecology, history of the aquatic microorganisms but also how these organisms interact with each other (Raven, 1991). Therefore, parameters such as temperature, salinity, photon flux density but also organism size can deeply affect the ways that these aquatic organisms develop to optimise photosynthesis (Raven, 1991). The classic algal CCM diagram published by Moroney (Moroney & Tolbert, 1985) and as shown in the General Introduction (Figure 1.8) describes an inorganic carbon uptake system mainly based on the presence of carbon pumps, carbonic anhydrases and simple diffusion through the membranes. However, organisms can organise their uptake systems around other structures. Periplasmic carbon uptake systems have been found in the genus *Chara* (Lucas *et al.*, 1983; Ray *et al.*, 2003), a streptophyte algae. Associated to another structure called *charasomes*, this mechanism allows this genus to grow in environment with high to medium pH. In *Chara corallina* (Mimura *et al.*, 1993), periplasmic carbon uptake system have been characterized as H⁺ATPase that pumps protons out of the cell and creating a gradient of pH and electrical potential differences across the plasma membrane (Taiz & Zeiger, 1998) whereas in *Chara tomentosa* this periplasmic system is more likely to be H⁺ extrusion with the help of proton pumps, combined with carbonic anhydrases and membrane transport of CO₂ (Ray *et al.*, 2003).

Despite many studies on inorganic carbon uptake, until now, very few studies have tried to understand the mechanisms behind the total absence of CCM and/or pyrenoid. With the environmental constraints that aquatic environments provide, it remains difficult to understand how some species survive without expressing an identified CCM. Do they reflect possible other adaptations or different Ci uptake pathways that those found in species expressing a CCM? The most recent and relevant studies are 15 to 20 years old (Morita *et al.*, 1998, 1999; Raven *et al.*, 2005) and thus do not take into account the latest discoveries on the essential components for the expression of the pyrenoid in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016, 2017; Zhan *et al.*, 2018). In addition, Raven (1991) emphasized the importance of diffusive supply potential based on cell size and assumed boundary layer to

understand the mechanisms of inorganic carbon uptake in algae. Do the species without pyrenoid/CCM have different morphological characteristics which could favour inorganic carbon uptake?

Therefore, to further our knowledge of CCM/pyrenoid expression the aim of this chapter is to fully characterise the CCM activity of 2 wild-type *Chlamydomonas* and 3 wild-type *Chloromonas* strains (Table 5.1), whilst also including measurement of the wild type *Chl. reinhardtii* as a reference. Following the approach used in Chapter 4, apparent affinity for inorganic carbon ($K_{0.5}$) was determined by oxygen evolution (Badger *et al.*, 1980) in high (5% CO₂) and low (0.04% CO₂) CO₂ conditions. Carbon isotope ratio analyses were made in order to characterise the CCM effectiveness and finally pyrenoid occurrence/morphologies were examined by scanning electronic microscopy (SEM). Ratio between pyrenoid size and whole cell size was also measured.

5.2 Results

As previously explained in the Material & Methods Chapter, oxygen evolution measurements, pyrenoid imaging and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ were used to fully characterise CCM activity in five different *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* species grown in high (5% CO₂) and low (0.04% CO₂) CO₂ concentrations [*Chlamydomonas augustae* (Skuja, 1943), *Chlamydomonas mutabilis* (Gerloff, 1940), *Chloromonas serbinowii* (Wille, 1903), *Chloromonas rosae* (Ettl, 1970) and *Chloromonas clathrata* (Ettl, 1970), Table 5.2 and Figure 5.1].

5.2.1 Differences in photosynthetic affinity for inorganic carbon

The rate of photosynthetic oxygen evolution under high and low CO₂ concentrations was used to determine the whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon and therefore the extent of any inducible carbon concentrating mechanisms.

In all the *Chlamydomonas* strains, photosynthetic affinity ($K_{0.5}$) for Ci in low CO₂ cells was higher than in cells grown under high CO₂ (Table 5.2 and Figure 5.3), statement supported by significant statistical differences between low and high CO₂ values. *Chl. reinhardtii* (results also showed in Chapter 4) and *Chl. augustae* showed strong affinity for Ci under low CO₂ (54 and 57 μM Ci respectively) consistent with a fully functional CCM (supported by statistical differences between the $K_{0.5}$ values in low and high CO₂ conditions; p -values= 3.2e^{-8} and 0.001 respectively) whereas *Chl. mutabilis* exhibited lower $K_{0.5}$ compared to the

other two *Chlamydomonas* species (84 μM Ci) suggestive of some CCM activity (Table 5.2 and Figure 5.3; *p*-value $K_{0.5}$ low CO_2 versus $K_{0.5}$ high CO_2 = 0.034). Photosynthetic affinity for Ci under high CO_2 showed poor affinity for Ci with $K_{0.5}$ values on average 6.9 times higher compared to the low CO_2 values (149, 462 and 835 μM Ci respectively) (Table 5.2 and Figure 5.3) and therefore an absence of CCM activity under such conditions. These results suggested that the three *Chlamydomonas* species possess a low- CO_2 inducible CCM. *Chloromonas* strains showed more diverse results. Overall, all the strains showed a poor photosynthetic affinity for Ci under low CO_2 with values ranging from 214 to 306 μM Ci. However, *Chr. serbinowii* and *Chr. rosae* exhibited even lower affinity for CO_2 under high CO_2 (822 and 871 μM Ci). Significant differences between low and high CO_2 $K_{0.5}$ values (*p*-values= 2.01e^{-7} and 0.01) were confirmed with the t-tests and are consistent with the presence of small intracellular Ci pools under low CO_2 conditions for these two strains. In contrast, *Chr. clathrata* did not show clear differences between photosynthetic affinity ($K_{0.5}$) under low and high CO_2 (214 ± 54 vs 537 ± 124 μM Ci; *p*-value= 0.22) with the two oxygen evolution curves superposed on each other (Figure 5.3), supporting the absence of Ci pool in this strain.

Table 5.2 Whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon in the 5 *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* representative species and in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) grown under low CO_2 (0.04% CO_2) and high CO_2 conditions (5% CO_2). Values are means \pm SEM. n=number of replicate. Significance: $p < 0.0001$ ****; $0.0001 < p < 0.001$ ***; $0.001 < p < 0.01$ **; $0.01 < p < 0.1$ *; $p > 0.1$ NS (not significant)

Species name	$K_{0.5}(\text{Ci})(\mu\text{M})$ Low CO_2 (0.04% CO_2)	$K_{0.5}(\text{Ci})(\mu\text{M})$ High CO_2 (5% CO_2)	T-test (Low VS High CO_2)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> (n=3)	54 ± 23	149 ± 24	<i>p</i> -value= 3.2e^{-8} ****
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i> UTEX LB 1969 (n=3)	57 ± 20	462 ± 72	<i>p</i> -value=0.001**
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i> UTEX 578 (n=3)	84 ± 15	835 ± 233	<i>p</i> -value=0.034*
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i> UTEX LB 492 (n=3)	237 ± 70	822 ± 297	<i>p</i> -value= 2.01e^{-7} ****
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i> UTEX 1337 (n=3)	306 ± 81	871 ± 213	<i>p</i> -value=0.01*
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i> UTEX LB 1970 (n=3)	214 ± 54	537 ± 127	<i>p</i> -value=0.22 NS

Chapter 5 :Comparative analysis of the morphology and the physiology of two closely related genera: *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*

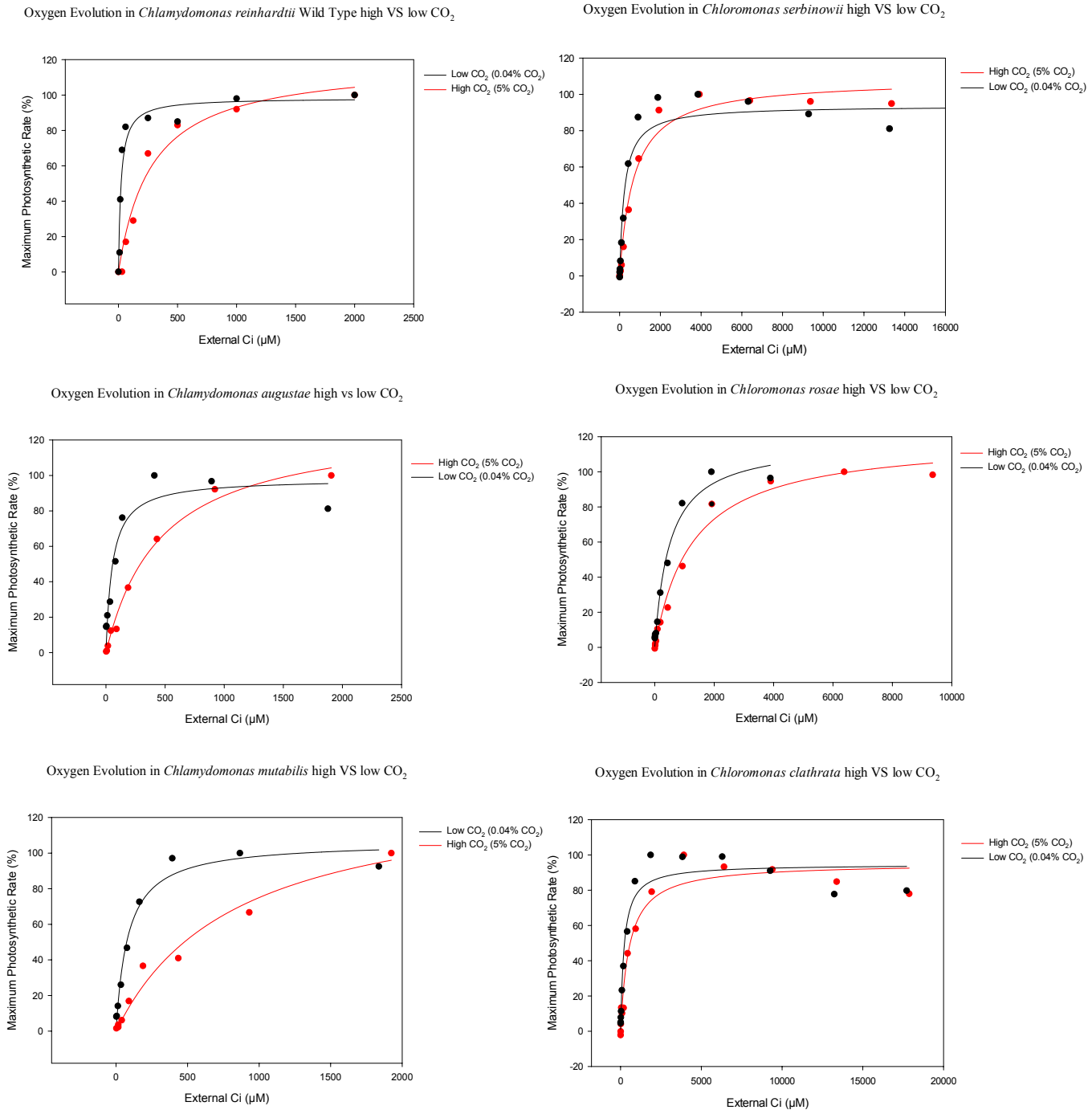


Figure 5.3 Oxygen evolution activity of in the 5 *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* representative species and in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) grown under low CO_2 (black curves; 0.04% CO_2) and high CO_2 conditions (red curves; 5% CO_2)

5.2.2 When present, pyrenoids exhibit different morphologies

Scanning electronic microscopy (SEM) was used to confirm the presence/absence of a pyrenoid in the different strains as an additional diagnostic for an active biophysical CCM. The presence of a pyrenoid was successfully confirmed for the *Chl. reinhardtii* and *Chl. mutabilis* strains, (Figure 5.4 A-B; Appendix 18) but not for *Chl. augustae* for which tissue embedding was unsuccessful. However, presence and morphology of the pyrenoid were confirmed based on Morita *et al.*, 1999 in which the same strain was used. Two different pyrenoid morphologies were observed in the *Chlamydomonas* strains (Figure 5.4A to C). The pyrenoid was enclosed by one layer of starch plate in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Figure 5.4A) whereas pyrenoids were enclosed by multiple starch grains (Figure 5.4B-C) in *Chl. augustae* and *Chl. mutabilis*. Although all the *Chlamydomonas* strains showed a pyrenoid in low CO₂ conditions, none of the three *Chloromonas* strains exhibited a pyrenoid (Figure 5.4D to F; Appendices 19 to 21), consistent with the general observations made on *Chloromonas* (Morita *et al.*, 1998).

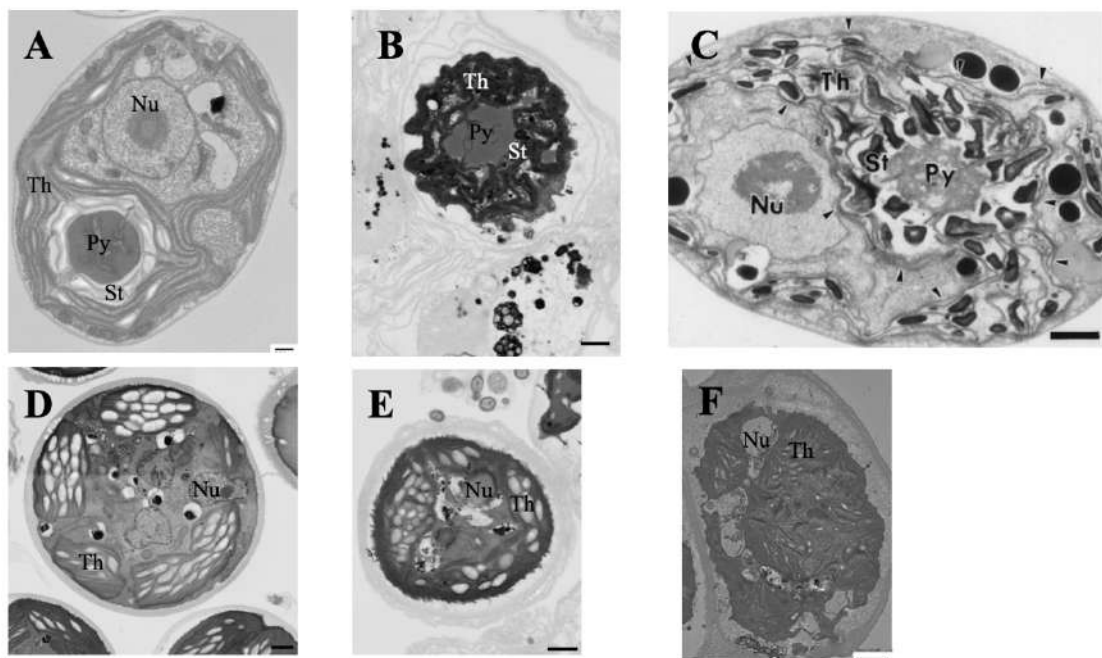


Figure 5.4 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images of the 5 representative *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* and of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (A: *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, B: *Chlamydomonas mutabilis*, C: *Chlamydomonas augustae*; Morita *et al.*, 1999, D: *Chloromonas serbinowii*, E: *Chloromonas rosae*, F: *Chloromonas clathrata*). Pyrenoids can be observed in the three different *Chlamydomonas* species. Two different pyrenoid morphologies can be observed. Pyrenoid can be enclosed by one layer of starch plate (A) or enclosed by multiple starch grains (B, C). Scale bars: 500 nm (A and F) and 1 µm (B to E). Py: pyrenoid; Th: Thylakoids, St: Starch sheaths, Nu: Nucleus

5.2.3 Stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) for organic matter reflects CCM strength

Stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) for organic matter was also used as a second proxy for CCM activity in the six different species (Table 5.3). Interestingly, *Chl. reinhardtii*, *Chl. mutabilis* and *Chl. augustae* were isotopically enriched in cells grown under low CO_2 (-18.85, -17.2 and -18.8 ‰), with values close to the upper range seen in C_4 terrestrial plants and consistent with a fully-functioning CCM (Raven *et al.*, 1982). In contrast, *Chr. clathrata*, *Chr. serbinowii* and *Chr. rosae* were isotopically depleted (-25.87, -23.64 and -25.33 ‰ respectively) compared to the *Chlamydomonas* strains with values found between C_3 and C_4 plants (O’Leary, 1988) and found in organisms with a CCM phenotype prone to leakiness (see Chapter 4) or limited carbon accumulation capacity. Interestingly, despite being isotopically depleted *Chr. serbinowii*, CCM + pyrenoidless, exhibited a $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value intermediate between (-23.64‰) species with CCM and pyrenoid+ (*Chl. augustae* and *mutabilis*) and species without CCM and without CCM (*Chr. clathrata*). Generally, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values lined up with the photosynthetic activity measurement previously found (see Chapter 4).

Table 5.3 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for organic matter for the 5 representative *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* and in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Values are means \pm SEM, n= number of replicate.

	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) Low CO_2 (0.04% CO_2)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) High CO_2 (5% CO_2)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> (n=3)	-18.85 \pm 0.01	-58.78 \pm 0.05
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i> UTEX LB 1969 (n=3)	-18.80 \pm 0.03	-60.34 \pm 0.02
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i> UTEX 578 (n=3)	-17.20 \pm 0.02	-57.33 \pm 0.10
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i> UTEX LB 492 (n=3)	-23.64 \pm 0.30	-63.04 \pm 0.02
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i> UTEX 1337 (n=3)	-25.33 \pm 0.01	-54.96 \pm 0.03
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i> UTEX LB 1970 (n=3)	-25.87 \pm 0.01	-59.09 \pm 0.02

5.2.4 *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* exhibit different cell morphologies

Cell morphologies were compared to see if *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* developed morphological adaptations other than the presence of pyrenoids. Measurements were successfully obtained. All the strains expressing a CCM showed similar cells surface area (between 39.4 and 76.2 μm^2) whereas *Chr. clathrata* (CCM- pyr-) exhibited a significantly smaller cell surface area (12.58 μm^2 ; Table 5.4). When present, the volume of pyrenoid was between 10 and 20% relative to the total cell size, consistent with the previous findings in the literature (Rawat *et al.*, 1996). Total volume of thylakoids relative to the total cell surface were all similar and did not show any differences between the different physiological mechanisms. Finally, cell wall widths showed significant differences between the two *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* genera. *Chloromonas* had wider cell walls (0.328, 0.704 and 0.544 μm), 3 to 7 fold larger than in *Chlamydomonas* (0.022; 0.068 and 0.130 μm) suggesting that the total absence of CCM led to smaller cell size in *Chr. clathrata*, but also that the absence of pyrenoid in *Chloromonas* strains were associated with thicker cell walls. Such observations could be consistent with the presence of carbonic anhydrases or inorganic pumps to convert directly HCO_3^- from the extracellular bulk into CO_2 but could also reflect a mechanism to avoid leakiness.

Table 5.4 Summary of different cell measurements: total cell surface area, estimation of the volume of the pyrenoid and of thylakoids compared to total cell sizes and cell wall widths for the 5 strains compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* based on SEM images (Appendices 15-18).

Species names	replicate (n)	Total surface area (µm ²)	SD	SE	% area pyrenoid	% area thylakoids	Cell wall width (µm)	SD	SE
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	3	53.49	4.90	2.83	12.33%	45.54%	0.022	0.006	0.003
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	1	54.95	NA	NA	19.22%	38.63%	0.068	NA	NA
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	3	39.40	14.57	8.41	11.24%	59.90%	0.130	0.026	0.015
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	10	76.25	21.93	6.94		51.18%	0.328	0.036	0.011
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	10	46.92	11.81	3.73		48.68%	0.704	0.207	0.069
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	1	12.582	NA	NA		62.00%	0.544	NA	NA

5.3 Discussion

Due to their close phylogenetical relatedness (See Introduction and Figure 5.2) and the presence of multiple CCM activities across different strains, *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* are good study models to understand pyrenoid occurrence in green algae. However, the physiological mechanisms explaining the absence of pyrenoid and/or CCM are not fully understood. Therefore, we explored the diversity of CCM activity for five poorly characterised *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* species by measuring the photosynthetic affinity for CO₂, pyrenoid imaging and through analysis of organic matter $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. These novel measurements were then compared to *Chl. reinhardtii*, in which the CCM activity is already well described (Badger *et al.*, 1980; Sültemeyer *et al.*, 1989; Meyer *et al.*, 2012; Mitchell *et al.* 2014).

5.3.1 Absence of pyrenoid is not necessarily linked to absence of CCM

Although easier to work with compared to streptophyte algae (See Chapter 4), measurements of photosynthetic affinity by O₂ electrode remained challenging but a good approach to test for the presence of CCM. The results clearly highlighted that the absence of pyrenoid (supported by the EM images in the *Chloromonas* strains) was associated with a clear shift towards a lower affinity for CO₂ (higher K_{0.5} values) in low CO₂ conditions. Despite this shift in the K_{0.5} values compared to the *Chlamydomonas* strains, the *Chloromonas* strains showed a diversity in their mechanisms of Ci uptake with mainly 2 states (CCM + pyr- and CCM- pyr-). Only the combination of the O₂ evolution measurements, d¹³C analyses and Morita's observations allowed us to establish the states of the different *Chloromonas* strains. The presence of intracellular Ci pools were therefore observed in *Chr. rosae* and *Chr. serbinowii* despite the absence of pyrenoid whereas an absence of CCM associated with an absence of pyrenoid was concluded in *Chr. clathrata*. Overall, *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* showed a diversity in their mechanisms of Ci uptake with three main states:

- Presence of CCM associated with a pyrenoid (*Chlamydomonas* strains)
- Presence of CCM without a pyrenoid (*Chr. rosae* and *Chr. serbinowii*)
- Absence of CCM, absence of pyrenoid (*Chr. clathrata*)

The diversity of inorganic carbon acquisition in algae has been the subject of intensive studies in the eighties and the nineties, however, the present data did not bring enough

information to make conclusions on the type of inorganic carbon uptake. Species with a CCM rely either on diffusive CO₂ uptake, active transport of HCO₃⁻ and CO₂ or on an external carbonic anhydrase to facilitate HCO₃⁻ uptake (Colman *et al.*, 2002). *Chl. reinhardtii* and *Dunaliella tertiolecta* have been shown to rely on active Ci transport at the chloroplast envelope (Amoroso *et al.*, 1998; Moroney & Chen, 1998) whereas no active transport of Ci was detected in *Chlorella ellipsoide* (Rotatore & Colman, 1991a).

The absence of CCM/pyrenoid is quite a rare trait (See Chapter 3) and potentially explains why there is a lack of studies on these organisms (Raven, 2010): “ *the reason for emphasizing algae which lack CCMs is that present evidence suggests that they are in a small minority, so that each discovery of new species has rarity value*”. Based on the observations made in this chapter, it appears that the absence of pyrenoid is not necessarily linked to the absence of some sort of CCM which emphasizes even more the need to understand the physiological mechanism used in these species. Absence of CCM has been detected in *Coccomyxa* (Palmqvist *et al.*, 1994a, 1994b, 1995, 1997) but also in some red algae (Raven & Beardall, 1981; Raven *et al.*, 1982; MacFarlane & Raven, 1985, 1989, 1990; Maberly, 1990; Johnston *et al.*, 1992; Mercado & Niell, 1999; Murru & Sandgren, 2004). Interestingly, the lack of CCM is not necessarily linked to the genus, as *Euglena mutabilis* never express a CCM and therefore always depend on diffusive exchange of CO₂ (Colman & Balkos, 2005), whereas the photosynthetic protozoan *Euglena gracilis* can express a CCM when grown at high pH and has therefore a CCM based on the active influx of HCO₃⁻. There are also entire clades of algae that cannot use bicarbonate as a source of inorganic carbon, for example, the Chrysophyceae sensu lato (group of heterokont algae without CCM) have not been able to show the use of HCO₃⁻ (Saxby-Rouen *et al.*, 1998; Maberly *et al.*, 2009; Bhatti & Colman, 2011; Maberly & Gontero, 2017). This list is far from exhaustive but generally, the local conditions appear to be an important factor for the presence of a CCM or not. However, despite the absence of direct evidence to characterise the mechanisms of inorganic carbon uptake potential hypotheses can be made. The present data show that a smaller cell size appeared to correlate with the absence of CCM. However it remains difficult to explain why *Chr. clathrata* has a small cell size. Does the small size reflect limited growth due to the absence of a CCM or is the small cell size a way to increase the concentration of the small Ci pool around Rubisco? It is important to remember that more anciently diverged organisms such as cyanobacteria also have small sizes but express a CCM (carboxysomes, Badger *et al.*, 2002; Price *et al.*, 2008), therefore, small sizes cannot directly be linked to absence of CCM.

In addition, the thicker cell walls were consistent with some of the hypotheses developed in Lucas & Berry (1985) and could support the presence of either active HCO_3^- pump transport system or carbonic anhydrases directly in cell walls to avoid leakiness.

Finally, an important point to discuss here is the growth conditions of these strains. All the analyses performed in this study have been conducted at room temperature (20°C), however, most of these strains are snow algae, growing in environments with much lower temperatures. Low temperatures are usually associated with reduced photorespiration (Linke & Seidell, 1965; Kaye & Laby, 1973; Long, 1991). Decreasing temperatures increase solubility of CO_2 relative to O_2 . With a CO_2 solubility in water at 0° and 5°C estimated at 24 and 21.8 μM (Figure 5.5 A), an O_2 solubility measured at 457 and 399 μM at 0° and 5°C respectively (Figure 5.5 C), a specificity of Rubisco for CO_2 relative to O_2 estimated at 250 and 220 μM at 0° and 5°C (Figure 5.5 B) and a selectivity for CO_2 over O_2 (W) describes as:

$$\text{Equation 2} \quad W = \frac{V_c \cdot K_o}{V_o \cdot K_c} \cdot \frac{[\text{CO}_2]}{[\text{O}_2]}$$

Where V_c and V_o are the maximum velocities for carboxylation and oxygenation and K_c and K_o are the relative Michaelis-Menten constants for CO_2 and O_2 respectively and $[\text{CO}_2]$ and $[\text{O}_2]$ the concentrations of CO_2 and O_2 dissolved in water. The ratios between photosynthesis and photorespiration are therefore estimated at 13 at 0°C and 12 at 5°C. This means that there are 13 carboxylase for 1 oxygenase event at 0°C vs 12 carboxylase for 1 oxygenase event at 5°C relative to 3.5 at 20°C in absence of CCM. Therefore, the data collected in the *Chloromonas* strains are likely to vary in natural conditions. Such observations raises the question of the requirement for a CCM in low temperatures environments. If the temperature decreases the solubility of O_2 in water, it also reduces diffusion rate of CO_2 (Boudreau, 1997) but also slows down the turnover rate of Rubisco (Dutkiewicz *et al.*, 2009. Young *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, lower temperatures cannot be directly associated to an absence of CCM. Work in diatoms (Kranz *et al.*, 2015) showed that the lower temperatures were associated to a reduction of the energetic requirement of a CCM and not an absence of CCM expression.

5.3.2 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values reflect carbon accumulation capacity in *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* strains

The stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of organic matter is a good second proxy for CCM activity (Section 4.2.2; Meyer *et al.*, 2008) and once again the present data perfectly lined up with the oxygen evolution and morphological findings. Although, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ obtained in streptophyte algae are consistent with a CCM phenotype prone to leakiness (potential retro-diffusion of CO_2), the values obtained in the different *Chlamydomonas/Chloromonas* strains are likely to reflect carbon accumulation capacity. Generally, the absence of pyrenoids is correlated with more negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value. However, this correlation is not absolute (Kevekordes *et al.*, 2006) as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reflects the trade-off between the expected diffusive CO_2 entry and the occurrence of some sort of CCM (Diaz & Maberly, 2009). In our study, the clear shift towards more negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values is directly associated with the absence of pyrenoid. Interestingly, *Chr. serbinowii* (CCM+ pyrenoid-) showed a value intermediate between the *Chlamydomonas* strains and the two other *Chloromonas*, which surely reflects the presence of some sort of CCM, as the $K_{0.5}$ values also suggested. The absence of a similar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value in *Chr. rosae* is surprising, however, as, the ratio probably reflects the weak diffusive CO_2 entry.

Chapter 5 :Comparative analysis of the morphology and the physiology of two closely related genera: *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*

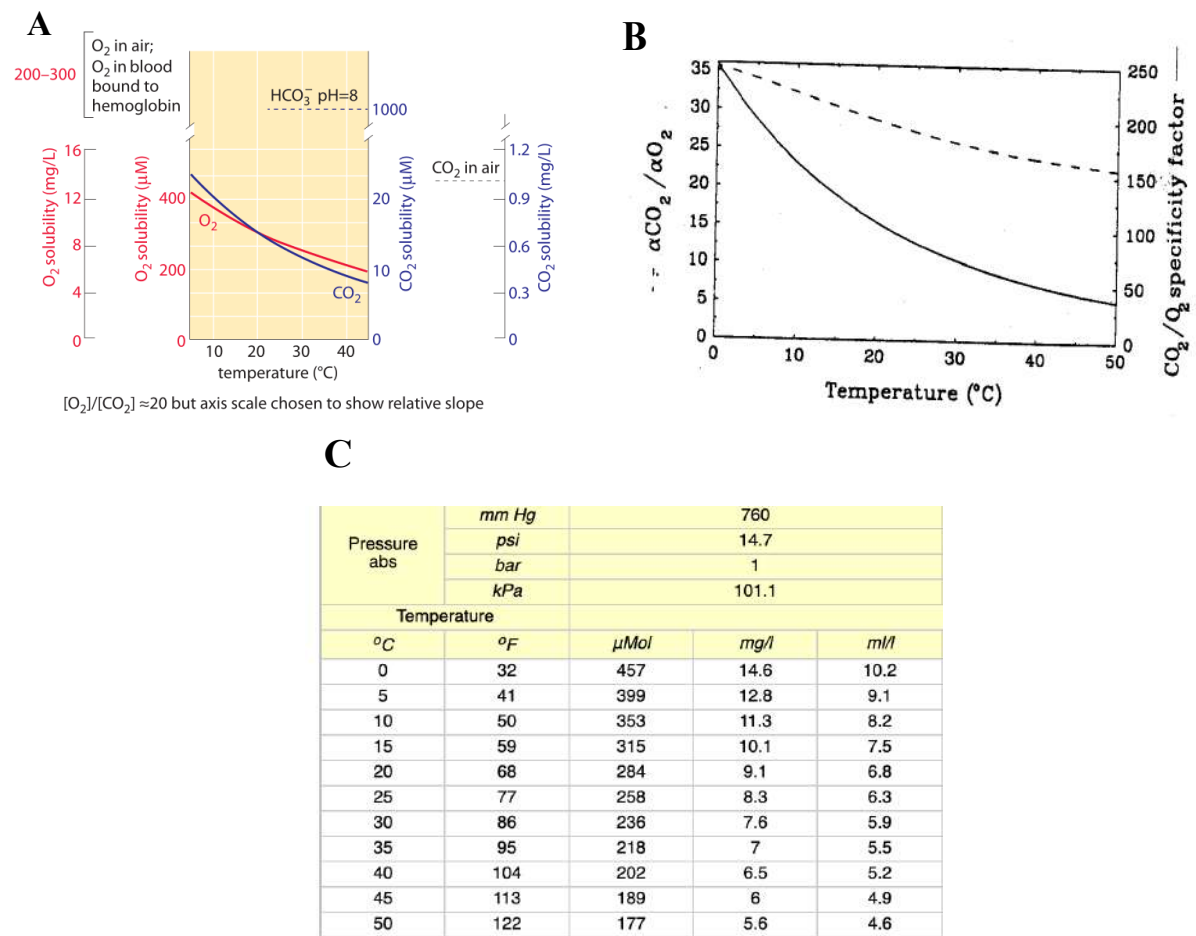


Figure 5.5 Tables used to estimate the ratio between photosynthesis and photorespiration at 0° and 5°C **A** Oxygen and carbon dioxide solubility in water and their dependence on temperature under normal air composition. **B** Specificity of Rubisco for CO₂ relative to O₂ and the ration of solubilities (α) of CO₂ and of O₂ in water (pH=7) from Long (2011). **C** Oxygen solubility in water with temperature at 101 kPa.

5.4 Conclusions and future works

Chlamydomonas and *Chloromonas* are two genera phylogenetically close to each other (Buchheim *et al.*, 1997, Pröchold *et al.*, 2001; Nozaki *et al.*, 2002), only differentiated by the absence of pyrenoid in *Chloromonas* (Figure 5.2 and 4). Carbon concentrating mechanisms are the result of a balance between local environmental pressures such as temperature and salinity, alongside Rubisco catalytic properties and traits specific to genus. The present data confirms the potential of these strains to help understand pyrenoid expression.

However, following the present experiments, further work needs be undertaken to fully characterize the physiological mechanisms of these five strains. Inorganic carbon uptake mechanisms in these related strains especially in *Chloromonas* remain unknown.

Thicker cell walls have been observed in species without pyrenoid, subsequent identification and characterisation of potential pumps or active transport systems in cell walls would need to be undertaken either in generating *Chloromonas* mutants or in looking for some specific genes in genome sequencing. In addition, as suggested in Chapter 4 for the streptophyte algae, characterising the main source of inorganic carbon is required. This would not only help to differentiate potential leakiness from weak whole cell affinity for CO₂ but to also further characterise the diversity of CCM in these related genera. Similar work in diatoms (Clement *et al.*, 2017) showed that *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* and *Thalassiosira pseudonana* use two different sources inorganic carbon (HCO₃⁻ and CO₂ respectively). It is, therefore, possible to hypothesize that the different *Chloromonas* strains could have different inorganic carbon uptake mechanisms. Finally, such data would also help us, combined with cell measurements and Raven's equation (Raven, 1991) to calculate CO₂ diffusion through the external cell wall and therefore to fully characterise the physiological mechanisms of these five strains.

Chapter 6: Genomic comparison of strains lacking CCM and/or pyrenoid

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 5, the physiology of five related strains of *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* were compared. The physiological analyses showed that the presence of a CCM is not necessarily linked to the presence of a pyrenoid. Similar to land plants, which show a range of physiological mechanisms, green algae species exhibit a range of CCM activity which may be associated with a pyrenoid. However, no study to date has attempted to explain the genetic basis to the expression of a CCM outside *Chl. reinhardtii*. In light of the development of new technologies, such as whole genome sequencing, the aim of this chapter was to investigate the genetic basis behind the observed presence/absence of a CCM with/without a pyrenoid. Specifically, this chapter will build upon the physiological measurements introduced in Chapter 5, and seek to answer three main questions: *i)* Based on whole genome sequencing can we infer the multiple, independent origins of the pyrenoid? *ii)* Do the interactions between LSUs and SSUs change between *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*, and could this affect the way EPYC1 binds to Rubisco? *iii)* What are the essential genes necessary for pyrenoid or CCM formation that are present in the *Chlamydomonas* strains and perhaps absent in *Chloromonas* (or vice-versa)?

6.1.1 Using Carbon Concentrating Mechanisms to improve crop production

Due to climate change and a growing population, the pressure to feed the world is increasing. World cereal production needs to be increased by at least 70% by 2050 to meet the demand for food (Covshoff & Hibberd, 2012; Freibauer *et al.*, 2011). One limitation on crop production is photosynthesis, due to the low efficiency of Rubisco, particularly in C₃ plants (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Sage *et al.*, 2002), which includes beans, rice, wheat and potatoes. Rubisco has a slow carboxylation rate and a low affinity for CO₂ and is also limited by photorespiration (see General Introduction). Although, CO₂ is directly fixed during the day in C₃ plants, 20-30% of potential CO₂ fixation is lost to photorespiration in moderate conditions (Andersson, 2008, Bauwe *et al.*, 2010; Zhu *et al.*, 2010).

Different approaches have been attempted to overcome these limitations (Whitney *et al.*, 2011; Parry *et al.*, 2012; Carmo-Silva *et al.*, 2015; Ort *et al.*, 2015). Firstly by placing C₄ photosynthesis into C₃ leaves in order to reduce the oxygenation activity by concentrating CO₂ around Rubisco (Hibberd *et al.*, 2008) but also by optimising Rubisco catalytic properties to reduce oxygenation potential (Ellis, 2010). The photorespiratory pathway is often considered as a wasteful process (Betti *et al.*, 2016; Busch *et al.*, 2018), therefore, engineering a photorespiratory bypass to limit photorespiration activity has also been the focus of research (Maier *et al.*, 2012; Carvalho *et al.*, 2011; Kebeish *et al.*, 2007; South *et al.*, 2019).

Introducing components from biochemical CCMs (carboxysomes or pyrenoid) in order to elevate CO₂ concentration in the chloroplast has also been considered (Von Caemmerer *et al.*, 2012; Price *et al.*, 2012; Meyer *et al.*, 2016). This approach is not only supported by modelling (Price *et al.*, 2012; McGrath & Long, 2014) but also by preliminary work which showed that a complex Rubisco construct with *Chlamydomonas* SSU and EPYC1 could be stably expressed and localized in the chloroplast of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Atkinson *et al.*, 2019).

Following the work of Meyer *et al.* (2012), Mackinder *et al.* (2016, 2017), transcriptome data from synchronised cells (Mitchell *et al.*, 2014; Zones *et al.*, 2015), has allowed analyses of gene regulatory networks and protein-protein interactions (Gita Yadav/Citu Gulia, University of Cambridge, unpublished data), to identify a total of 88 genes essential components for pyrenoid formation in *Chl. reinhardtii* (see Table 2.5; Chapter 2). However, at this stage how these proteins interact with each other and their expression profiles are not fully understood, particularly across closely related genera which differ in expression of a CCM with or without a pyrenoid (Chapter 5).

6.1.2 *Chloromonas*, a good study model to introduce a pyrenoid?

Despite some progress towards the introduction of the algal CCM in higher plants (Atkinson *et al.*, 2019), this research is at an early stage and the molecular interactions/expressions between the different proteins are not fully understood even in *Chl. reinhardtii*. Therefore, characterising the expression of a pyrenoid in a closely related species might inform the work currently being undertaken in higher plants. Eukaryotic algae expressing a CCM but without a pyrenoid, such as some *Chloromonas* strains (Chapter 5), would be a good model to study gene expression associated with such compartments. This would facilitate the

understanding of the mechanisms of inorganic carbon uptake in organisms without a pyrenoid, compared to the a molecular definition established in *Chl. reinhardtii*.

6.1.3 Objectives of this study

The last twenty years have seen the rapid development of new technologies such as Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS). The relatively low cost of this technology has facilitated analysis and publication of whole-genome sequences from algal study models such as *Chl. reinhardtii* (Merchant *et al.*, 2007), *Klebsormidium flaccidum* (Hori *et al.*, 2014) *Chara braunii* (Nishiyama *et al.*, 2018), and more recently from *Spirogloea muscicola* and *Mesotaenium endlicherianum* (Cheng *et al.*, 2019). Given the limited time available to process this data because close to the end the data collection period, the aim of this Chapter was to use WGS of the five *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains (introduced in the chapter 5; *Chlamydomonas augustae* UTEX LB 1969; *Chlamydomonas mutabilis* UTEX 578; *Chloromonas serbinowii* UTEX LB 492; *Chloromonas rosae* UTEX B 1337 and *Chloromonas clathrata* UTEX LB 1970) to address three specific questions:

1. Does the pyrenoid come from a common ancestor or does it have multiple and independent origins?
2. Secondly, are there any patterns of interactions between SSUs and LSUs in the different *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains, which could reflect the way EPYC1 binds to Rubisco (if present)?
3. Finally, based on the list of the 88 genes essential for the pyrenoid formation found in *Chl. reinhardtii*, which are present in the *Chlamydomonas* strains but absent in *Chloromonas* (and vice-versa)?

6.2 Results

6.2.1 The five strains have different genome size

The re-sequencing of the five strains using short reads (BGI) was generally successful with high quality reads and good coverage, whereas long read PacBio sequencing was very challenging with a very poor coverage. *Chr. rosae* had the largest genome size (141 Mb) but only 8.3 Mb of *Chr. serbinowii* was sequenced with the PacBio technology. However, reasonable genome sizes were obtained through a combination of both short and long reads (Table 6.1).

Interestingly, the five genomes exhibited different genome sizes (Table 6.1). *Chl. augustae* showed the smallest genome size (109 Mb) whereas *Chl. mutabilis* and *Chr. serbinowii* exhibited genome sizes of 151.1 and 144.1 Mb respectively. Finally, *Chr. rosae* and *Chr. clathrata* appeared to have the largest genomes (289 and 302 Mb). Overall, compared to the size of *Chl. reinhardtii*, the results suggested that the five new strains were successfully sequenced, but probably with quality variations between the different strains.

Table 6.1 Genome sizes of the five newly sequenced strains obtained with the two sequencing methods and of the hybrid assembly compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*

	Genome size (short reads/BGI)	Genome size (long reads/PacBio)	Genome size (hybrid)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>			120 Mb (Merchant <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	102.3 Mb	79.6 Mb	109 Mb
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	150.2 Mb	17.1 Mb	151.1Mb
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	144.1 Mb	8.3 Mb	144.1 Mb
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	180.9 Mb	141 Mb	289 Mb
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	274 Mb	32.2 Mb	302 Mb

6.2.2 The pyrenoid has multiple and independent origins

Chloroplastic CDS were successfully extracted (Appendix 22) from the new *de novo* assemblies with BLAST and were included in the green algae chloroplastic phylogeny (Figure 6.1; black arrows). With the exception of *Palmophyllum crissum*, which was clustered with the prasinophytes, the 3 main clades (streptophyte algae, prasinophyte and chlorophyte) were reconstructed with generally good support, except for some nodes leading to branches which recently diversified, and with a tree topology generally consistent with the most recent green algae phylogenies (Lelieart *et al.*, 2012; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). The pyrenoid occurrence, when mapped on to this chloroplast phylogeny, appeared to be a widely distributed trait.

Of the 64 green algal species used to build this phylogeny, 15 were reported to be without a pyrenoid, which represent 23% of the species used in this phylogeny. Interestingly, none of the streptophyte algae were reported without pyrenoid. The absence of a cluster including all the species without pyrenoid suggested that the pyrenoid is not inherited from a common ancestor and can be lost multiple times during evolution. The loss of a pyrenoid would be

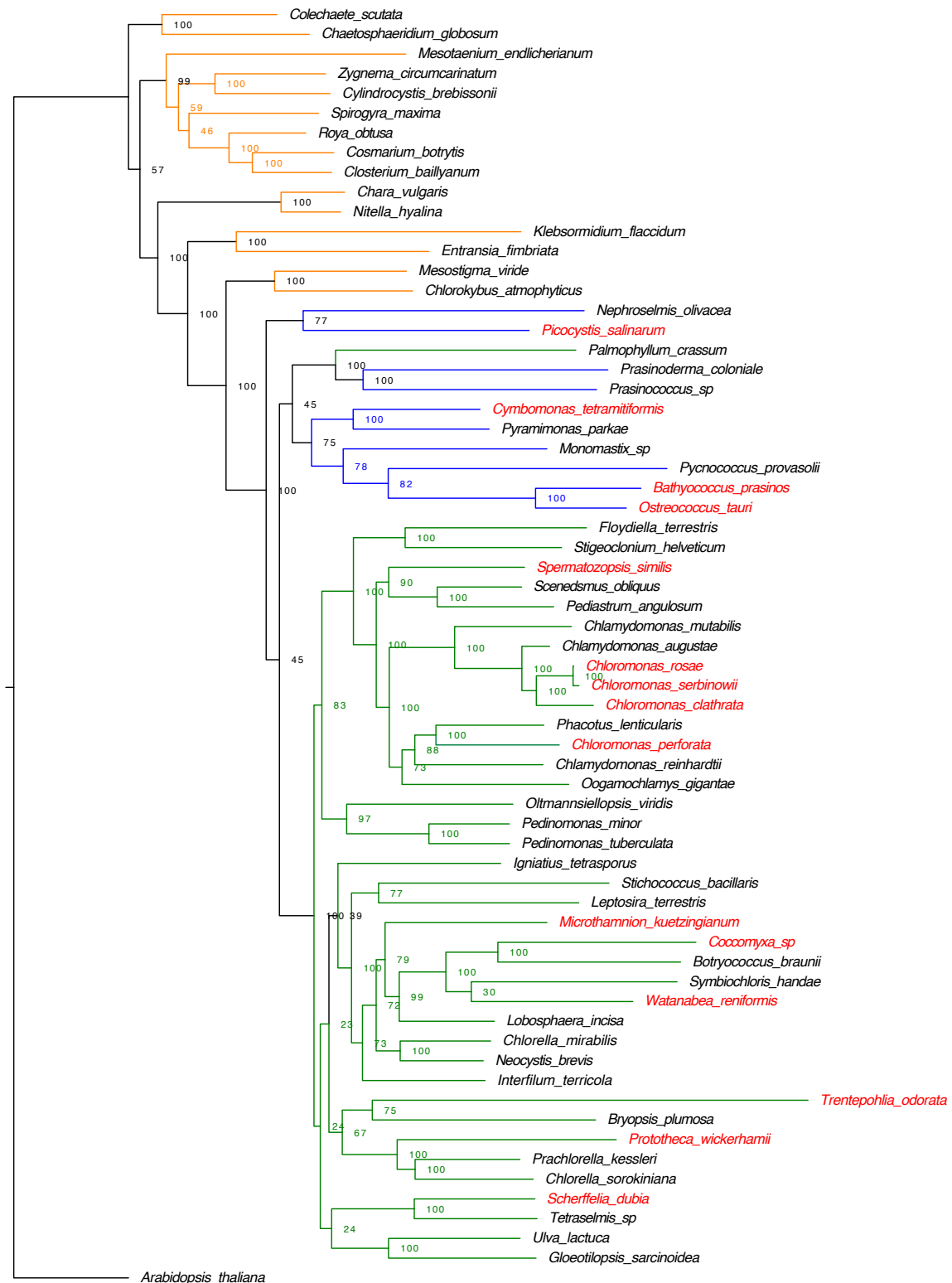


Figure 6.1 Phylogenetic tree of 64 green algae species, including the *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains used in Chapter 5 and Figure 6.2. This tree was built with RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) based on the nucleotide alignment of 44 chloroplastic genes. *Arabidopsis thaliana* was used as an outgroup. Species without pyrenoid were highlighted in red and the new sequenced strains are indicated with a black arrow. Streptophyte algae were labelled in orange, prasinophytes in blue and chlorophytes in green. The pyrenoid appears to have been lost 12 times across this phylogeny of green algae. Node labels indicate bootstrap values (support values for 100 replicates).

characterised by the transition from a pyrenoid positive (pyr+) to pyrenoid negative (pyr-) state. The distribution of species without a pyrenoid across the phylogeny suggested that this structure was lost at least 10 times through the evolution of the green algae.

Within the prasinophytes, the pyrenoid was lost, for example, from *Pycnococcus provasolii* to *Bathycoccus* and *Ostreococcus tauri* which were clustered together with the transition from an external branch (pyr +) to two internal (pyr-) branches.

In addition, the five newly sequenced strains were clustered together, with high support. However, *Chl. reinhardtii* and *Chr. perforata* appeared to be in a sister clade to the five newly sequenced strains, also joined by *Phacotus lenticularis* and *Oogamochlamys gigantea*.

6.2.3 The genus *Chloromonas* is not monophyletic

The chloroplast phylogeny of the four *Chloromonas* and the three *Chlamydomonas* strains was successfully built with the 44 chloroplastic genes (Figure 6.2) previously extracted from the new genomes assemblies (Appendix 22). The aim of this phylogeny was to see whether the *Chloromonas* strains would form a monophyletic clade including all the strains without a pyrenoid. The two strains from GenBank (*Chl. reinhardtii*; NC005353 and *Chloromonas perforata*: KT625416) appeared to be clustered together whereas all the newly sequenced strains formed a separate clade (Figure 6.2). The two new sequenced *Chlamydomonas* strains (*augustae* and *mutabilis*) formed the basal branches of this cluster and the three *Chloromonas* strains were located in the most internal branches.

Following the explanation in the previous paragraph, the data in Figure 6.2 suggested two loss events in this restricted phylogenetic grouping. These losses were observed at the level of the *Chloromonas* strains. The first one occurred with *Chr. perforata* (pyr-) whereas the second event occurred in the ancestor of the three new sequenced *Chloromonas* strains (*serbinowii*, *rosae* and *clathrata*). Interestingly, *Chr. serbinowii* and *Chr. clathrata*, the two strains without a pyrenoid but with the presence of CCM activity, formed a monophyletic clade in the two most internal branches with a very high support value (100). Therefore, this multi-marker phylogeny did not support the monophyly of *Chloromonas*.

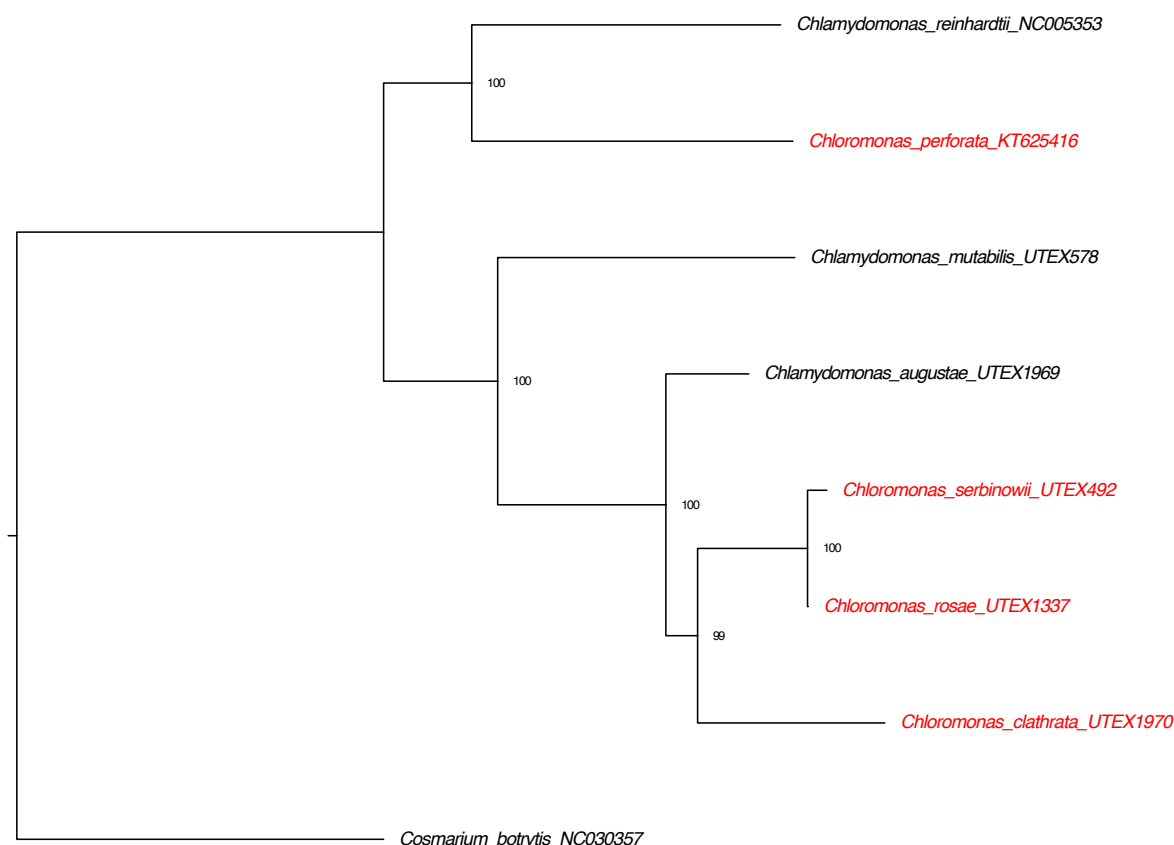


Figure 6.2 Phylogenetic tree of 4 *Chloromonas* and 3 *Chlamydomonas* strains based on the nucleotide alignment of 44 chloroplastic genes and built with RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014). *Cosmarium botrytis* was used as an outgroup. Strains without pyrenoid (See Chapter 5; Mackinder *et al.*, 2016) are highlighted in red (all the *Chloromonas* strains). *Chloromonas* strains do not form a monophyletic clade. The pyrenoid appeared to have been lost with (*Chloromonas perforata*) and in the three *Chloromonas* strains' ancestor (*Chloromonas serbinowii*, *rosae* and *clathrata*). Node labels indicate bootstrap values (support values for 100 replicates).

6.2.4 The interactions between LSUs and SSU do not reflect the pyrenoid occurrence in *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*

The analysis of the Rubisco PDB structure of *Chl. reinhardtii* (1GK8; Taylor *et al.*, 2001) was successful and allowed the comparison of the interactions between LSUs and SSUs in this study model and the new sequenced strains. The *Chl. reinhardtii* Rubisco was characterised by the presence of 8 LSUs encoded by *rbcl* (475 amino acids) and 8 SSUs (140 amino acids) (Figure 6.3 and 6.5). Generally, one SSU appeared to interact with 3 LSUs confirming Spreitzer's observations (Spreitzer, 2003) with a total of 66 residues interacting with at least one of the 3 LSUs. Over these 66 residues, 4 were located in the first α -helix (A), 1 in the second α -helix (B) and 16 in the β A- β B loop (Figure 6.6).



Figure 6.3 Alignment of rbcL sequences used for Rubisco modelling. The *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* sequence was used as template (PDB number: 1gk8) and the 4 other rbcL sequences were extracted from the whole genome sequencing.. * indicates positions which have a single fully conserved residues; '<=>' indicates a site belonging to group exhibiting strong similarity (strong score >0.5); '<=>' indicates sites belonging to a group from weak similarity (weak score <0.5).

Rubisco modelling and the subsequent interaction analysis were only possible after extraction of *rbcL* and *RbcS* sequences from the new assemblies. In the newly sequenced strains, *rbcL* sequences were shown a great consistency between the different sequencing methods (Figure 6.3). Overall, the sequences were quite conserved across the five newly sequenced strains with more than 50% similarity (Figure 6.3; Table 6.2). However, two distinct patterns were observed between *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*. *Chlamydomonas* sequences were on average similar to each other with 90% of similarity. Comparisons between *Chloromonas* sequences showed similar values, whereas inter-genus comparison of *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* sequences showed only around 50% similarity (Figure 6.3; Table 6.2).

Analysis of *RbcS* sequences was more challenging. The *RbcS* sequences appeared to be very different from the *RbcS* sequences in *Chl. reinhardtii*, even in the new *Chlamydomonas* strains sequenced. Multiple copies were found and inconsistencies between the different sequencing methods were observed as well as the presence of a short β A- β B loop, which was not consistent with the observations in Chapter 3. In addition, the absence of full long read sequencing with the PacBio technology for some strains meant that only the short read BGI sequences were available for *Chl. mutabilis* and *Chr. serbinowii*. Furthermore, it was not possible to establish the functionality of these *RbcS* copies. Therefore, only the copies with relatively consistent α -helices sequences between the different methods were used for Rubisco modelling (Figure 6.4-5). In contrast to *rbcL*, the α -helices exhibited great variation between sequences and there was an absence of specific patterns between the two genera. The α -helices were never more than 67% similar (*Chr. serbinowii* and *Chr. clathrata*) and the least similar were *Chr. serbinowii* and *Chl. mutabilis* (30%). Among the 27 residues of the two α -helices, five amino acids were perfectly conserved across the five species: Q25, I26, Q29, Y32 in α -helix A and 92E in α -helix B (Figure 6.5, 7).

Following the extractions of *rbcL* and *RbcS* sequences in the new strains, Rubisco modelling of the new strains was successfully performed (using *Chl. reinhardtii* as template; Appendix 23) on 4 of the 5 strains: *Chl. augustae* and *mutabilis* (CCM+ pyr+), for *Chr. serbinowii* (CCM + pyr-) and *clathrata* (CCM- pyr-). *Chr. rosae* (CCM+ pyr-) was unused for this analysis due to a lack of consistency between the two sequencing methods, especially at the level of the second α -helix (Figure 6.4).

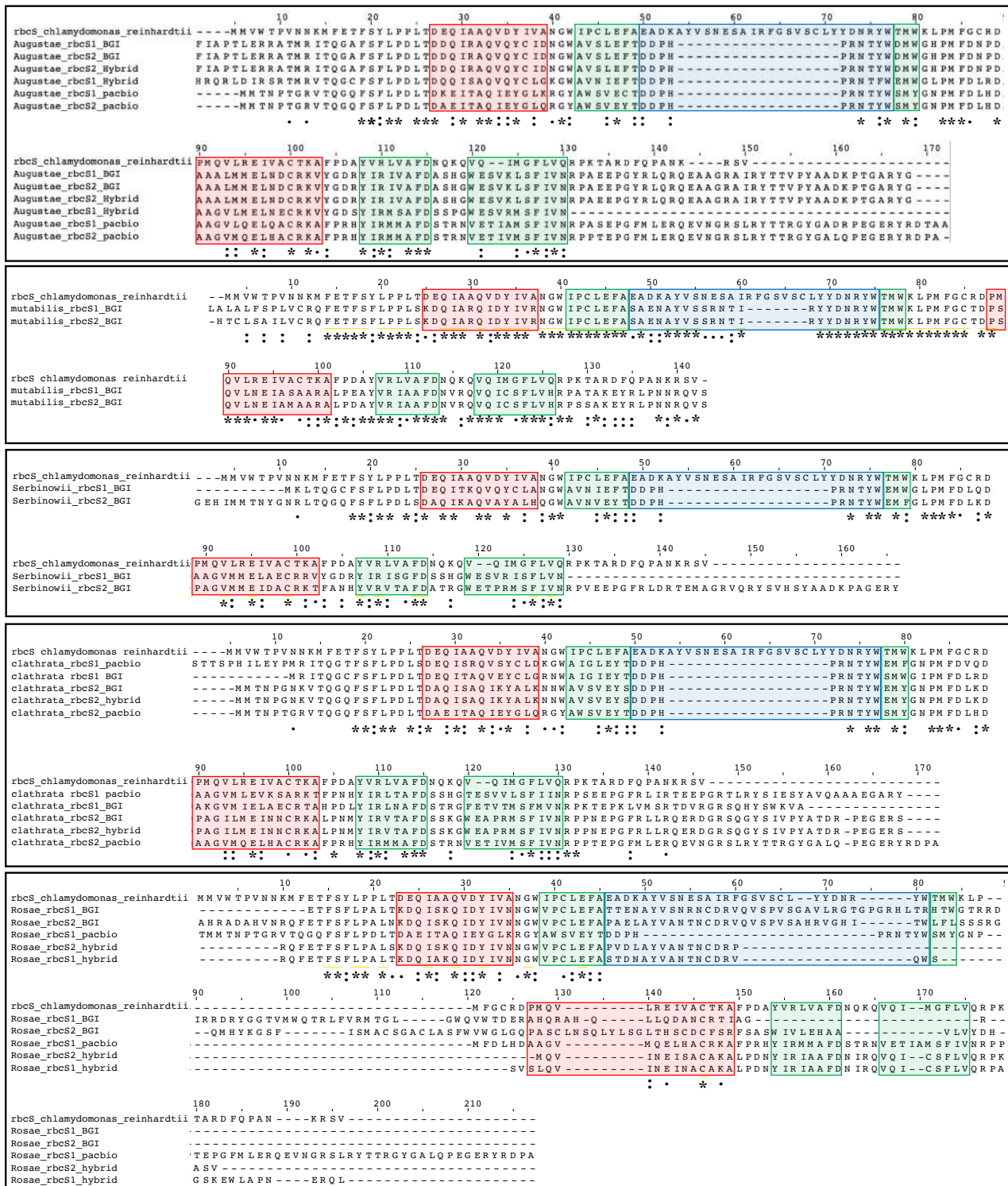


Figure 6.4 Alignments of the different *RbcS* sequences extracted from the different whole-genome sequencing (BGI, PacBio and hybrid). Sequences were aligned on the first copy of *RbcS* (*RbcS1*) in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. α -helices were framed in red, β -strands in green and the β A- β B loop in dark blue. * indicates positions which have a single fully conserved residues; «:» indicates a site belonging to group exhibiting strong similarity (strong score >0.5); «.» indicates sites belonging to a group from weak similarity (weak score \leq 0.5)

Using the newly modelled Rubiscos, residues of the SSUs interacting with the LSUs were identified and compared to those found in *Chl. reinhardtii*. Overall, one SSU appeared to interact with 3 LSUs as described in *Chl. reinhardtii* in all the strains.

However, the number of interactions and where these interactions occurred varied between species (Table 6.6; Appendix 24) and as compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Chl. augustae* and *Chl. mutabilis* (CCM+ pyr+) had generally more interactions between LSUs and SSU relative to the *Chloromonas* strains. With 67 residues of the SSU interacting with 3 LSUs, *Chl. augustae* was the strain with the most interactions, whereas *Chl. mutabilis* exhibited the same number of interactions as *Chl. reinhardtii* (66 interactions; Figure 6.6). *Chloromonas* strains had generally fewer interactions compared to their related *Chlamydomonas* strains. *Chr. serbinowii* (CCM+ pyr-) exhibited 63 interacting residues, whilst *Chr. clathrata* (CCM- pyr-) had the smallest number of interactions with 59 residues of the SSU interacting with the 3 LSUs.

In addition, the number of interactions occurring within the two SSU α -helices and within the β A- β B loop, our secondary structures of interest, varied between strains but also compared to *Chl. reinhardtii*. *Chl. augustae* (CCM+ pyr+) appeared to be the only new strain with residues within the second SSU α -helix interacting with a LSU whereas *Chl. mutabilis* (CCM+ pyr+), *Chr. serbinowii* (CCM+ pyr-) and *Chr. clathrata* (CCM- pyr-) did not show any residues of this helix interacting. Over the 28 residues forming β A- β B loop, most of them were identified as interacting residues in all the strains (Figure 6.6) without specific patterns differentiating strains with/without CCM or with/without pyrenoid. However, work is currently underway to confirm (via PCR) whether the extent that the *RbcS* β A- β B loop-lengths inferred from the sequencing are short or long.

Overall, the analyses of the interactions between LSUs and SSU did not show clear differences between the different strains. Therefore, the way subunits interact with each other did not reflect the different range of CCM activities.

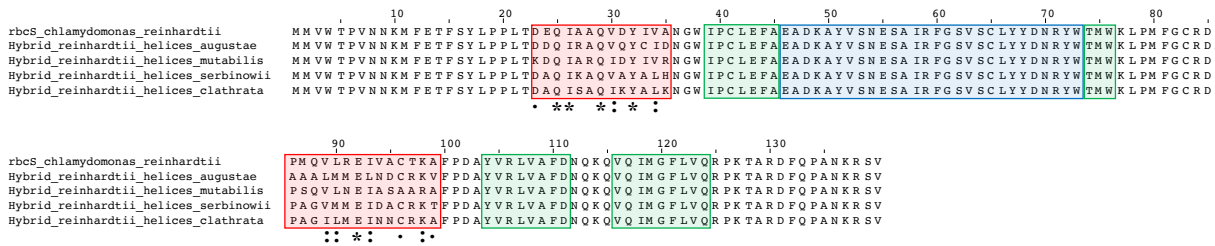
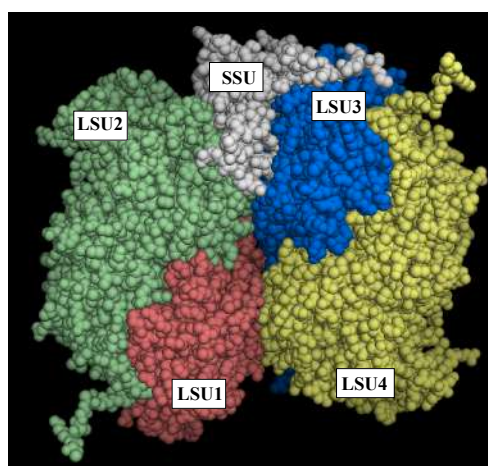


Figure 6.5 *RbcS* alignment of the sequences used for Rubisco modelling. *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* was used as a template (PDB number : 1gk8). α -helices were framed in red, β -strands in green and the β A- β B loop in dark blue. Only the α -helices were annotated.* indicates positions which have a single fully conserved residues; «:» indicates a site belonging to group exhibiting strong similarity (strong score >0.5); «.» indicates sites belonging to a group from weak similarity (weak score ≤ 0.5).

Table 6.2 *rbcL* and *RbcS* (only the α -helices) percentage of similarities between the different *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains.

<i>rbcL</i>	<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	100%					
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	91%	100%				
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	93%	95%	100%			
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	60%	55%	57%	100%		
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	59%	56%	57%	93%	100%	
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	58%	54%	55%	86%	84%	100%

<i>RbcS</i>					
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	100%				
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	37%	100%			
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	56%	22%	100%		
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	52%	52%	30%	100%	
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	48%	48%	37%	67%	100%



Species name		Number of residues interacting with all the LSUs on SSU	Number of residues interacting on LSU1	Number of residues interacting on LSU2	Number of residues interacting on LSU3	Number of residues interacting on LSU4
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	Total	66	14	31	50	0
	helix A	4				
	helix B	1				
	loop	16				
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	Total	67	11	31	49	0
	helix A	4				
	helix B	2				
	loop	21				
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	Total	66	13	29	51	0
	helix A	5				
	helix B	0				
	loop	18				
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	Total	63	10	27	50	0
	helix A	3				
	helix B	0				
	loop	21				
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	Total	59	10	27	43	0
	helix A	6				
	helix B	0				
	loop	19				

Figure 6.6 Summary of the interactions between small subunit (SSU) and large subunit (LSU) of Rubisco after Rubisco modelling in 4 *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. One SSU interacts with 3 LSUs. The third column indicates the total number of residues interacting on the SSUs and how many of them are located within the 2 α -helices and in the β A- β B loop. The fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh columns indicate the number of residues interacting with the SSU on each of the four LSUs.

6.2.5 Comparison of the two α -helices and pyrenoid occurrence in *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains

As previously undertaken in Chapter 3 (Figure 3.2), a comparison of the amino acid composition of the two Rubisco SSU α -helices was undertaken in order to see if amino acid composition could explain CCM/pyrenoid occurrence. Except for the presence of 5 residues (see paragraph above) conserved across all the strains, none of the residues located in the α -helices showed any kind of pattern specific to *Chlamydomonas* or *Chloromonas* strains (Figure 6.7) or specific to a particular CCM activity, confirming the results previously found in Chapter 3. In addition, the comparison of the biochemical properties of the residues with a solvent-exposed side chain within the two α -helices between the new sequenced strains and with the α -helices of *Chl. reinhardtii*, confirmed the absence of specific residues which explain pyrenoid occurrence.

However, over the five amino acids conserved across the five species and in *Chl. reinhardtii*, four appeared to be buried residues, which would explain why they are less inclined to change and reflecting potential importance for Rubisco assembly. Overall, there is an absence of any common patterns which could discriminate species with or without a pyrenoid and with or without a CCM.

	HELIX A															HELIX B													
	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99		
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	D	E	Q	I	A	A	Q	V	D	Y	I	V	A	P	M	Q	V	L	R	E	I	V	A	C	T	K	A		
CCM+ pyrenoid +	AP	AP	PN	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	AP	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	PN	NN	NN	NN	BP	AP	NN	NN	NN	PN	PN	BP	NN	
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	D	D	Q	I	R	A	Q	V	Q	Y	C	I	D	A	A	A	L	M	M	E	L	N	D	C	R	K	V		
CCM+ pyrenoid +	AP	AP	PN	NN	BP	NN	PN	NN	PN	NN	PN	NN	AP	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	AP	NN	PN	AP	PN	BP	BP	NN		
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	K	D	Q	I	A	R	Q	I	D	Y	I	V	R	P	S	Q	V	L	N	E	I	A	S	A	A	R	A		
CCM+ pyrenoid +	BP	AP	PN	NN	NN	BP	PN	NN	AP	NN	NN	NN	BP	NN	PN	PN	NN	NN	PN	AP	NN	NN	PN	NN	NN	BP	NN		
<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	D	A	Q	I	K	A	Q	V	A	Y	A	L	H	P	A	G	V	M	M	E	I	D	A	C	R	K	T		
CCM+ pyrenoid -	AP	NN	PN	NN	BP	NN	PN	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	BP	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	AP	NN	AP	NN	PN	BP	BP	PN		
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	D	A	Q	I	S	A	Q	I	K	Y	A	L	K	P	A	G	I	L	M	E	I	N	N	C	R	K	A		
CCM- pyrenoid -	AP	NN	PN	NN	PN	NN	PN	NN	BP	NN	NN	NN	BP	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	NN	AP	NN	PN	PN	PN	BP	BP	NN		

charge interactions/hydrophobic

exposed residues

AP Acid and polar residues DE

BP Basic and polar residues

NN Non-polar neutral residues

PN Polar neutral residues

Figure 6.7 Comparison of the amino acids composition of the two Rubisco SSU α -helices for the 4 *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains compared to the study model *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Residues which have potentially identified as binding sites for interactions with EPYC1) are framed in red in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Exposed residues are framed in black. Acid and polar residues are in yellow, basic and polar residues are in orange, non-polar neutral residues are in blue and polar neutral residues are in pink.

6.2.6 The 88 essential genes for pyrenoid formation are not found in the same proportions across the different *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains

Following the identification of 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation characterised by the analysis of transcriptome data in synchronised cells, gene regulatory network analyses and protein-protein interactions (See Table 2.5; Chapter 2 and paragraph 6.1), BLAST analysis was used to identify what proportion of the 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation in *Chl. reinhardtii* (See Chapter 2; Table 2.5; Appendix 25) were present in the five newly sequenced genomes (Figure 6.8). Based on the BLAST analysis, the five strains showed a great disparity in the results (Figure 6.8; Appendix 25). *Chl. augustae* (CCM+ pyr+) and *Chr. serbinowii* (CCM+ pyr-) were the two strains with the fewest matches (28 and 31 genes respectively did not match) whereas in *Chl. mutabilis* (CCM+ pyr+) more than 70% (64/88 genes) of the essential genes were present. Surprisingly *Chr. rosae* (CCM+ pyr-) and *Chr. clathrata* (CCM-pyr-) obtained more hits than *Chr. serbinowii* (CCM+ pyr-) and *Chl. augustae* (CCM+ pyr+) with 57 and 51 hits respectively, which is more than 57% of the 88 essential genes. However, the absence of a match does not necessarily mean absence of the gene in the assembly, as the gene may not have been sufficiently similar to match the reference genome. If the sequences from *Chl. reinhardtii* appeared to be too different from those in the new assemblies, the software might have not been able to detect them. Therefore, negative hits cannot be associated to the absence of these genes.

Of the 88 genes, 21 were found in all five strains (Table 6.3). Most of them were genes with important metabolic functions and it was therefore not surprising to find them. Along with *RbcS* and *rbcL*, they included genes such as kinases, a carbonic anhydrase, and an important protein in the Calvin cycle (Cre03.g185550.t1.2). Some of the genes identified in all five strains were very specific to CCM expression, such as BST1, a bestrophin protein thought to be located on the thylakoid membrane and potentially associated with chloroplast CCM components in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019). In addition, the new BST4 protein, thought to be the missing thylakoid bicarbonate transporter of the *Chl. reinhardtii* CCM, was also found in all the five strains even though *Chr. clathrata* does not express CCM activity or a pyrenoid. Therefore, the results at this stage do not show evidence of particular trends in expression of the 88 essential genes between species with/without CCM and/or pyrenoid.

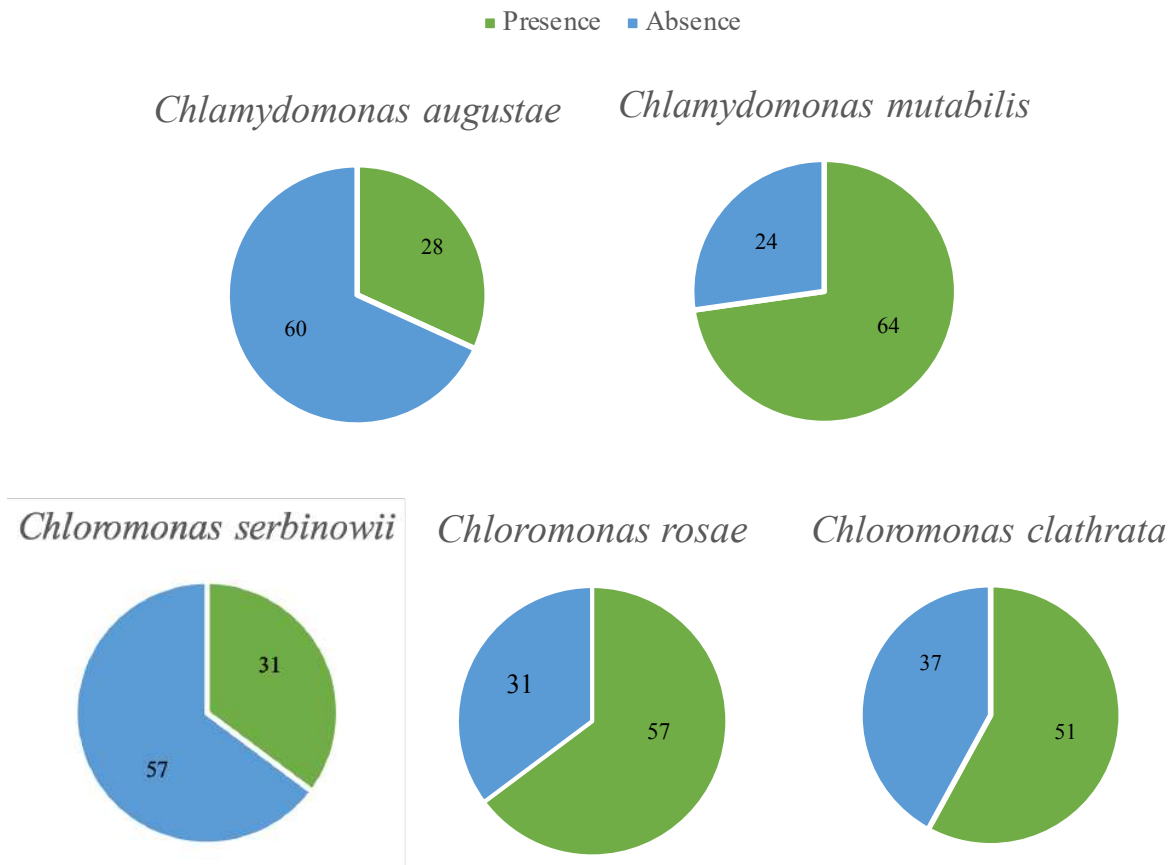


Figure 6.8 Proportion of the 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation identified by transcriptome analysis in synchronised cells (Mitchell *et al.*, 2014; Zones *et al.*, 2015) but also by gene regulatory network analysis and protein-protein interactions (Gita Yadav, Citu Gulia, University of Cambridge, unpublished data) found with BLAST in the 2 *Chlamydomonas* and 3 *Chloromonas* strains. Genes found are labelled in green and the absence of genes are in blue. The two *Chlamydomonas* strains are CCM + pyrenoid +, *Chloromonas serbinowii* and *rosae* are CCM + pyrenoid -, finally *Chloromonas clathrata* is CCM- pyrenoid -.

Table 6.3 List of the genes common to the five new sequenced strains

Gene ID	Function
Cre01.g014350.t1.2	Peroxisredoxin type II
Cre01.g030900.t1.1	CoA ligase/ OSB CoA synthetase
Cre01.g045902.t1.1	Protein high chlorophyll fluorescence 101
Cre02.g111550.t1.1	Serine-threonine protein kinase
Cre02.g120100-150	RbcS
Cre03.g185550.t1.2	Sedoheptulose-1,7-bisphosphatase calvin cycle
Cre05.g248450.t1.	Mitochondrial carbonic anhydrase
Cre06.g259900.t1.2	ATP synthase gamma chain chloroplastic
Cre06.g261750	RBMP1; Bestrophin, RFP-TM, chloride channel (Bestrophin)
Cre06.g295450.t1.2	Hydroxypyruvate reductase
Cre06.g309000.t1.2	Anion transporter
Cre09.g396950.t1.1	Candidate Na ⁺ /HCO ₃ ⁻ transporter from screens
Cre10.g444700.t1.1	SBE3 - Starch branching enzyme
Cre12.g484200.t1.2	GGPS1
Cre12.g494850.t1.2	ADK3 - Adenylate kinase 3
Cre13.g581850.t1.2	Kinase
Cre14.g626700.t1.	Fd/FDX1 - Ferredoxin
Cre16.g659050.t1.1	SEPHCHC synthase
Cre16.g662600.t1.2	BST1 bestrophin expressed low CO ₂
Cre16.g663450.t1.2	LCII1
Cre17.g721500.t1.2	STA2 - Starch synthase, chloroplastic/amyloplastic
	BST4
	rbcL

6.2.7 Multiple candidates for EPYC1-like protein found in the 5 new genomes.

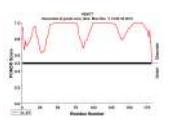
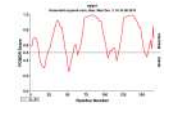
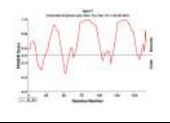
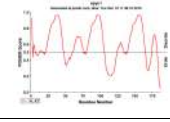
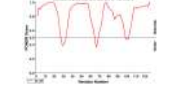
The absence of any BLAST hits for EPYC1 in the five new genomes led to use of Mackinder's method (2016) to detect EPYC1-like candidates (See Chapter 2: Materials & Methods, paragraph 2.5.3.3), and X-stream was performed successfully. The *Chl. augustae* genome contained the fewest repeats of the 40-80 amino acid lengths, with 26 repeats found (Table 6.4a). In contrast, *Chr. rosae* and *Chl. mutabilis* had 406 and 203 repeats respectively (Table 6.4a-b). Around 50% of the repeats exhibited pI superior to 8 (11 for *Chl. augustae*, 162 for *Chl. mutabilis*, 40 for *Chr. serbinowii*, 148 for *Chr. rosae* and 97 *Chr. clathrata*). However, only a few of these repeats with a pI>8 showed the typical oscillating disorder profile. In total, two repeats with physiochemical properties similar to *Chl. reinhardtii* EPYC1 were identified in *Chl. augustae*, *Chr. serbinowii* and *Chr. rosae*, 6 repeats in *Chl. mutabilis*, and 1 repeat was detected in *Chr. clathrata*.

Furthermore, any of the consensus repeats generated with Xstream looked similar to the general consensus repeat found in *Chl. reinhardtii*, which suggests that if any of these sequences were EPYC1, they would probably have different biochemical properties and consequently a different binding mechanism to Rubisco.

Table 6.4a Analysis of the five new strains for proteins with EPYC1-like physiochemical properties following Mackinder *et al.* (2016) method.

Species	CCM/ Pyrenoid	Number of proteins with ...				repeat ID Xstream	Protein characteristics				Consensus repeat sequence from Xstream	Disorder profile
		...>=3 repeats with a 40- 80aa repeat length	... And a pI>8	... and an oscillating disorder profile	... and no transmembrane domains		Length	Repeat length	Repeat copy #	pI		
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	CCM+ pyrenoid+	18	8	1	1	Cre10.g4 36550	318	61	3.84	11.8	VTPSRSLP SNWKQELE SLRSSPAP ASSAPAPAR SSASWRD AAPASSAPA RSSASKKA	
<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i>	CCM+ pyrenoid+	26	11	2	2	repeat 16	205	50	4.12	9.13	TGCRCCSSP CSGSPRSRS TGCRWNWS PCSARMSK STGSTRCCS SCSDPT	
						repeat 22	142	45	3.04	11.76	LQRGGHGL ERTGPGGE APFVARREI GLRCEQLL MVQRMAA GLLPFL	
<i>Chlamydomonas mutabilis</i>	CCM+ pyrenoid+	203	162	6	6	repeat 171	128	40	3.23	12.04	RPDTGVPLV PPVPPARPS RPQQPQRH AGAAARADA AAAERG	
						repeat 134	138	43	3.23	12.27	PWOWDGAP RQREGGAV AMWGAAA AGGRRRGN GVGCRGSG RGA	
						repeat 53	174	57	3.05	11.74	GCRSRGGC RCGRRHGH EPADLGGG RRYRHQGR RPGRCHGC RWRCRCRSR AVCRGRG	
						repeat 160	156	41	3.8	11.68	AAGALRHA PQRAPARP QAAAACPA PRPHAPMPL CPLRCRHS	
						repeat 162	149	41	3.63	11.71	ERRQRSQ SGRGAYGR GVGHAAAA WGGAGARC GACRIAPAA	
						repeat 162b	150	41	3.66	11.81	AERRQRRG QSGRGAYS RGAGHVAA ACGSGGVR CGACRSAP A	

Table 6.4b Analysis of the five new strains for proteins with EPYC1-like physiochemical properties following Mackinder *et al.* (2016) method.

<i>Chloromonas serbinowii</i>	CCM+ pyrenoid-	71	40	2	2	repeat 11	192	62	3.02	12.35	ARRCRAAR SRARRPACR ATSTTPRW CSTRTAPMP APCRARAA PRPARATRP APTATAA	
						repeat 15	166	53	3.15	11.53	LSPSFGTGS AATARATL ASTALSIAA ASGSAGTG AGRAAMAS STICLITAGS T	
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	CCM+ pyrenoid -	406	148	2	2	repeat 119	53	166	3.15	11.53	LSPSFGTGS AATARATL ASTALSIAA ASGSAGTG AGRAAMAS STICLITAGS T	
						repeat 52	63	199	3.17	9.87	ESNLHERIM TGCTSIRPE LRSMGIELV SFDNQKRK SKAPTERDG VMPNHCIRL YRNRTG	
<i>Chloromonas clathrata</i>	CCM- pyrenoid-	150	97	1	1	repeat 114	135	41	3.32	11.51	RTRKWPQP APSLSSCSA PPRQQCSGT PLAPCRLCH KTS	

6.3 Discussion

The aim of this chapter was to use whole genome sequences to investigate the molecular basis of different CCM activity in five closely related strains. Three biological questions were addressed: *i*) Can the multiple origins of the pyrenoid be inferred from sequencing? *ii*) Do the interactions between LSUs and SSUs reflect the different CCM activities and do the α -helices reflect the same interactions with EPYC1 found in *Chl. reinhardtii*? *iii*) Can the 88 essential genes for CCM expression be found in the five new strains, which express different types of CCM activity?

6.3.1 Whole genome sequencing: a challenging but a powerful tool to answer biological questions.

Whole genome sequencing is an incredible source of information but generates a lot of data which can be difficult to handle. Specialist companies now provide high level sequencing expertise with relatively low costs. For our five green algal strains more detailed analysis of the whole genome sequences is ongoing, but initial results can be discussed. For the five strains the genome size estimation was based on the *Chl. reinhardtii* genome size (120 Mb) and overall, the final genome sizes obtained were similar to the initial estimation (slightly higher than *Chl. reinhardtii*). The short read BGI sequencing was very successful, with a coverage of x90 based on a genome size of 120 Mb. In contrast, the long read PacBio sequencing was very disappointing with only a third of each genome sequenced. The PacBio technology aims to generate very long reads of around 15 000 bp, however, the sequencing platform never managed to produce such reads on our strains probably due to problems with the polymerase, possibly due to the high GC content of these species? The Norwegian Centre is currently trying to understand why the sequencing failed.

Despite being closely related, the *Chl. reinhardtii* genome appeared to be quite different to the five new strains. Few previous attempts have been made to use *Chl. reinhardtii* as a reference to reconstruct new genomes, but on average, only 4% of the reads were mapped onto the *Chl. reinhardtii* genome using BWA (Li & Durbin, 2009). The same problem happened during the chloroplastic genome reconstruction with Geneious. However, the annotations of the full genomes are still in progress as well as the full chloroplastic reconstructions.

The genome sizes were surprising large in *Chr. rosae* and *Chr. clathrata*. However, the three other strains had genome sizes in the range of the other green algae recently sequenced

(*Mesotaenium endlicherianum*: 163 Mb; Cheng *et al.*, 2019 or *Klebsormidium flaccidum*: 117 Mb; Hori *et al.*, 2014). Sadly, attempts to estimate genome size by flow cytometry of nuclei failed multiple times. Breaking the cell walls was generally a challenge during this PhD programme. However, such experiments remain important in the future in order to evaluate whether some parts of the genome were not sequenced or in case contamination by sequences from other organisms needs to be removed.

Overall, these sequencing approaches remain unique, as whole genome sequencing in green algae has mainly been aimed at understanding land colonisation (Liang *et al.*, 2019; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019), but these genome comparisons represent an unique opportunity for a deeper investigation of the genetic basis behind the different extent of CCM activity and pyrenoid occurrence.

6.3.2 The pyrenoid is the result of a convergent evolution in green algae

The multiple origins of the pyrenoid was a long standing hypotheses. The early studies on *Chloromonas* (Buchheim *et al.*, 1997; Nozaki *et al.*, 2002) showed the gain and losses of the pyrenoid, but never across the whole green algae lineage and using only one or two markers. Later on, Meyer and Griffiths (2013) used a phylogeny based on ribosomal 18S that included more organisms. However, drawing strong and reliable conclusions from a phylogeny built with one marker remains difficult. Nozaki *et al.* (2002) showed that different tree topologies can be obtained when built with different markers (Figure 6.9). The phylogeny of *rbcL* published in Nozaki *et al.* (2002) placed *Chl. augustae* in the most internal branches whereas the chloroplast phylogeny here showed that the two *Chlamydomonas* strains are basal. The phylogeny of green algae in Lelieart *et al.* 2012 was one of the most complete trees, but only showed branches leading to the main lineages and not at the species level. More recently, the one thousand plant transcriptomes and the phylogenomics of green plants (Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019) was released and this included dozens of green algae. However, the study focused mainly on streptophyte algae and did not provide a detailed phylogeny of the green algae at the species level. Chloroplast genomes are often used in plant phylogenetics because they possess properties common to Viridiplantae: the chloroplast genome is haploid because it is maternally inherited. Consequently, it is not recombined and highly conserved in gene structure, order and arrangement (Downie & Palmer, 1992; Olmstead & Palmer, 1994) making it a good marker for phylogenetic studies. In addition, a single *Chl. reinhardtii* cell contains on average 83 copies of the chloroplast genome (Gallaher *et al.*, 2018) which represents a substantial part

of the reads after sequencing. Reconstructing a phylogeny with species diagnosed with and without a pyrenoid, and based on multiple chloroplastic genes, generated results with good support and permits stronger conclusions to be drawn.

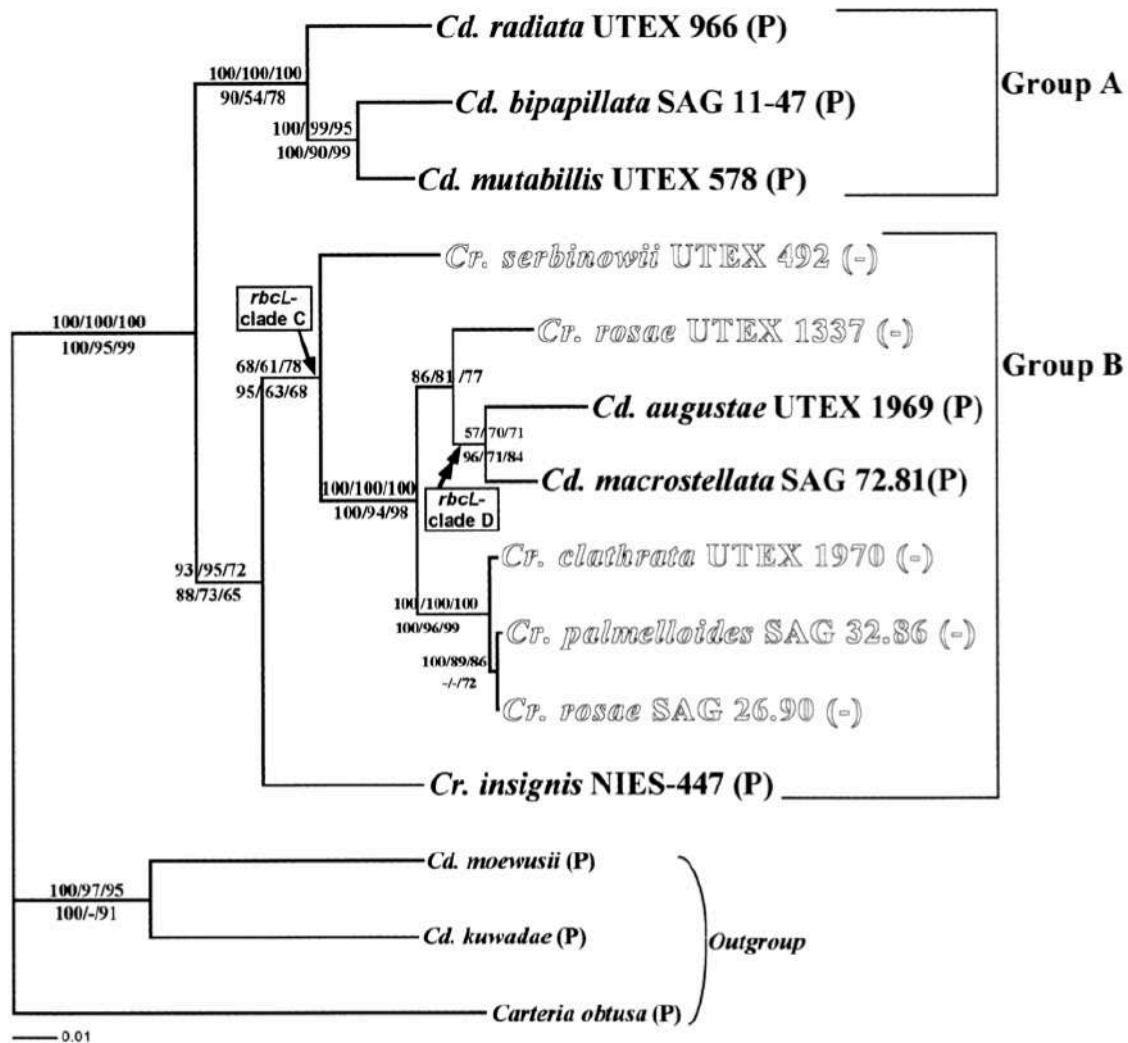


Figure 6.9 Maximum likelihood tree of the 11 strains obtained in Nozaki *et al.* (2002), based on nucleotide sequences of *rbcL*.

The list of species in this phylogeny is far from exhaustive but provided evidence in support of multiple origins of the pyrenoid. Except for the newly sequenced *Chloromonas* and *Chlamydomonas*, for which the presence of CCM and/or pyrenoid have been clearly characterised, only the pyrenoid occurrence had previously been reported for the other species.

Therefore, the total absence of CCM activity in this species cannot be inferred without more physiological analyses of all of them. Even if this study has been the first to use multiple

markers to infer the multiple losses of the pyrenoid, the results were far from surprising. This analyses lines up with the other studies on CCM evolution in hornworts and *C4* metabolism (Sage *et al.*, 2011; Villareal & Renner, 2012) and confirmed our initial hypotheses. However, new results mean new questions arise. If the pyrenoid is not inherited from a common ancestor in green algae what was the state of the most common ancestor to the algae with a primary chloroplast? As explained in Raven *et al.* (2005), the single origin of the CCM in algae with a primary chloroplast and without horizontal gene transfer, would imply that the conditions at the time favoured firstly the origin but also the retention of a CCM over a long period of time [at least 1.2 billion years (Butterfield, 2000)]. The multiple origins of the CCM is therefore a stronger hypotheses, but it also does not rule out that the common ancestor did not have a CCM at all, and that it could have been lost when the environmental conditions would not require such a function.

6.3.3 Rubisco interactions and α -helices reflect potential different types of CCM

Interactions between LSUs and SSUs were investigated to see if any correlations could be observed between CCM activity and intensity of the interactions between the different Rubisco subunits. The higher number of interactions between LSUs and SSUs in *Chlamydomonas* strains was consistent with the presence of pyrenoid in this species. However, it remains difficult to understand the reason behind it. In addition, the present Rubisco modelling only took into account the α -helices and not the full sequences.

Generally, all the analyses described above suggested the existence of multiple forms of CCMs, which would be consistent with multiple independent origins and would explain the difficulty identifying commonalities between CCMs, such as the absence of an obvious EPYC1 in species other than *Chl. reinhardtii*. The potential EPYC1 candidates found in *Volvox carteri* (XP_002946604.1) and *Gonium pectoral* (KXZ46518.1) were very similar, but Mackinder *et al.* (2016) did not find any other similar sequences in other algal genomes. In addition, the results of this chapter showed that even in closely related species to *Chl. reinhardtii* (*Chl. augustae* and *mutabilis*) no similar sequences were identified, whilst a long list of potential candidates have been identified in the related genus *Chloromonas*. However, the presence of repeats with similar physiochemical properties to EPYC1 does not necessarily mean that one of these repeats is derived from EPYC1. Only further analyses will determine if any of these candidates are functionally equivalent to EPYC1, especially in the *Chloromonas* strains which do not have a pyrenoid. Interestingly, *Chloromonas*

strains showed the highest number of repeats in their genomes, but the consensus repeats were very different to each other, therefore if any of these repeats were to be EPYC1, the potential binding mechanisms are likely to be different compared to the one found in *Chl. reinhardtii*. The α -helices comparison confirmed the results found in Chapter 3, with not only an absence of similar biochemical properties which could differentiate species with a pyrenoid from species without, but also an absence of any pattern in the exposed residues. Therefore, in assuming that EPYC1 homologues are present in these strains, it remains difficult to see how the interactions between SSU and EPYC1 would remain similar to those in *Chl. reinhardtii*.

The existence of other types of interactions between Rubisco and a protein linker have been shown to exist in the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Oh Zhen Guo, PhD thesis). The Rubisco binding motifs were characterised and it was determined that the interactions take place with the surface exposed C-terminus residues of the Rubisco SSU.

The disorderly nature of EPYC1 makes this protein difficult to find. Intrinsically disordered proteins are known to be regulatory proteins (Launay *et al.*, 2018) that either do not have a unique stable structure or may have a significant propensity to fold into secondary structural elements (Marsh *et al.*, 2006; Sharma *et al.*, 2019). In addition, this ability to fold depends on different factors [post-translational modifications, redox-conditions, pH or temperature (Yao *et al.*, 2001; Csizmok *et al.*, 2007; Cremers *et al.*, 2010; Bah & Forman-Kay, 2016; Launay *et al.*, 2018)]. A large number of proteins have been found in *Chl. reinhardtii* (Zhang *et al.*, 2018) with disordered protein properties. Among them, the C-terminus extension of Rubisco activase (RCA) is highly disordered, showing variations between chlorophytes and streptophyte algae. Streptophyte algae possess two regulatory cysteine residues, absent in the chlorophytes, which allow RCAs to be activated by light through a redox protein called thioredoxin (Carmo-Silva & Salvucci, 2013; Nagarajan & Gill, 2018). However, variations in this C-terminus extension also exists within the chlorophytes (Comparison between *Tetraselmis* sp and *Ostreococcus tauri*), suggesting potential different mode of interactions between RCAs and Rubisco (Sena & Uversky, 2016). The absence of a C-terminus extension in chlorophytes suggests that RCAs could also act as an additional chaperone (Portis *et al.*, 2007; Mueller-Cajar *et al.*, 2014) and could potentially use different mechanisms to remodel inhibited Rubisco (Hauser *et al.*, 2015b). However, we can also hypothesize that in streptophytes, α -RCA with the disordered extension could also act as a linker protein. Disordered extremities enable proteins to increase the number of partners that

can directly affect their regulation. The interactions between the α -RCA and the A₂B₂-GAPDH have already shown to participate in photosynthesis regulation (Thieulin-Pardo *et al.*, 2015). This could support potential other interactions with other partners such as Rubisco.

The presence of potential EPYC1 candidates in our five new strains and those found in other algae supports the presence of EPYC1 in species other than just *Chl. reinhardtii*. However, the present study and those found in Chapter 3 suggest that the mechanisms of interactions with Rubisco are not ubiquitous across the green algae. However, if the final aim of fully understanding CCM expression in *Chl. reinhardtii* is to introduce it in C₃ crops, only a deep understanding of one model organism is perhaps necessary.

6.3.4 Genomes comparison

The genome comparison of the 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation was somewhat interesting and few points need to be discussed here. The *Chlamydomonas* strains showed very different results. *Chl. mutabilis* turned out to be the strain with the most hits compared to *Chl. augustae*. Such results could be an effect of the genome size. *Chl. mutabilis* is 48 Mb larger than *Chl. augustae* but would it be enough to explain these differences? It is important to remember that the absence of hits does not mean absence of these genes and only the full annotations will give us the final presence or absence of certain genes. However, this initial screening gave us a first taste of the future results. The presence of BST1 and BST4 in the five strains suggest that either these genes are expressed at different levels, simply not expressed at all in the strains without a pyrenoid, or potentially expressed only in certain conditions. Based on the BLAST analyses, other similar results are expected to be found.

6.4 Conclusion and future works

This work represents only preliminary analyses of the complete genomes and reflects the potential for these large datasets. It appears clear from the data in this chapter, but also from Chapter 3, that the mechanistic interactions between the different subunits of Rubisco, and also with EPYC1 found in *Chl. reinhardtii*, are not ubiquitous to all the green algal species. Future work will mainly need to include 3 main analyses, firstly, genome size estimations will need to be undertaken using a different protocol. So far, the method used was optimised for *Arabidopsis thaliana* and provided by Sebastian Eves-van den Akker. The protocol

developed by Winck *et al.* (2011) will be tested and includes an optimized protocol from the CellLytic PN kit (Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) and liquid nitrogen. Secondly, structural and functional annotations of the five strains are currently ongoing. So far, only the structural annotation of *Chl. augustae* is complete. Such annotations will help us to definitively make conclusions on the occurrence of the 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation, and will help us to determine the genetic basis behind the inorganic carbon uptake (Chapter 5.3.3). Finally, full chloroplast reconstruction is currently underway. Because of the lack of similarity between *Chl. reinhardtii* and the five new strains, only manual reconstruction is possible and therefore several methods are being tested.

Chapter 7: General Discussion

The starting point for this research project had been the observations that the small subunit (SSU) of Rubisco was directly involved in Rubisco aggregation mechanism which lead to pyrenoid formation and optimal photosynthetic carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM) expression in *Chl. reinhardtii*. The overall goal of the programme was to investigate the wider relationship between the Rubisco SSU sequence and CCM occurrence across the green algal lineages. Using bioinformatics, biochemistry and physiological approaches, the aim was to investigate whether any specifically conserved SSU residues might be related to the origins and functioning of the CCM, pyrenoid formation and associated Rubisco kinetic properties.

This General Discussion summarises the key findings of the four data Chapters and considers the results within a wider context, whilst also identifying lessons learned from the work and suggesting where future research should be focussed.

7.1 *RbcS*, a gene of interest to understanding pyrenoid formation

Following Meyer *et al.* (2012), the first step of this study was to use a phylogenetic approach to identify the residues that could explain pyrenoid occurrence in green algae based on early access to the incredible data collection arising from the 1kP programme (Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). Owing to their variable quality, only a small proportion of the sequences could be used, however the new phylogeny of *RbcS* (Figure 3.1) gave us more insight into the evolution of *RbcS* and Rubisco more generally. The analyses of *RbcS* showed that the structure of streptophyte algal Rubisco SSU is similar to land plant Rubisco SSU and that *RbcS* was not under any specific type of selection.

The main challenge of Chapter 3 came from the nature of *RbcS* itself. As part of a gene family and being nuclear encoded, *RbcS* is more inclined to variations compared to the chloroplast genes. More than two copies of *RbcS* were present in most of the species in the phylogeny. The two copies of *RbcS* in *Chl. reinhardtii* have been shown to have different timing of maximum gene transcript expression, with *RbcS1* highest at night and *RbcS2* that is expressed continuously in diurnal growth (Zones *et al.*, 2015). The manipulation of the α -helices by Meyer *et al.*, (2012) and associated changes in Rubisco aggregation and pyrenoid formation, were undertaken with *RbcS1*, which suggests this copy is the dominant

contributor to Rubisco synthesis following CCM induction. With four copies of *RbcS*, the newly sequenced *Prasinoderma coloniale* (Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019) is another recent example that highlights the difficulty in understanding the functional attributes of each copy of the gene for pyrenoid occurrence or growth under contrasting environmental conditions. The generation of an *Arabidopsis* mutant expressing only one of the four *AtRbcS* genes has provided a transformation platform for the complementary introduction of the *Chlamydomonas RbcS1* constructs, or specific alpha helices thereof, into *Arabidopsis* (Atkinson *et al.*, 2017; Meyer *et al.*, 2012; Izumi *et al.*, 2012).

The *Chl. reinhardtii* CCM is, so far, the best described in the literature. No other green algae species has been characterised to the same depth, therefore it remains difficult to estimate both how widespread the *Chl. reinhardtii* CCM is across the green algal phylogeny, and also to what extent *RbcS* plays a similar central role. Overall, across the green algae, generally little is known about pyrenoid formation.

The shorter β A- β B loop length found in streptophytes algae is a major observation arising from work undertaken during the preparation of this thesis. This trait can now be used to differentiate streptophyte algae from chlorophytes, in addition to the other traits previously discussed (see General Introduction). However, loss of amino acids from the β A- β B loop raises again the importance of the central solvent channel and the impact that a change in channel diameter in the streptophytes might have on Rubisco photosynthetic efficiency, or capacity to adapt to changing CO₂ availability during life on land. It has been shown that CO₂ molecules were not only using the channel to access the active sites but could also diffuse through the Rubisco molecule itself, with the SSU potentially acting as a CO₂ reservoir (Van Lun *et al.*, 2014).

The short β A- β B loop arose between 750 and 1000 Mya, but in the absence of relaxed selection on *RbcS*, (Chapter 3) what can explain the loss of five amino acids? Chapter 4 showed that a shorter loop had no impact on the kinetic properties of Rubisco, so was not a selective advantage to improve Rubisco operating efficiency. It is difficult to associate the shorter loop with environmental changes as the split between streptophytes and chlorophytes probably occurred during the Boring billion, a period during which the environmental conditions were very stable. However, a one billion year old multicellular chlorophyte fossil has just been discovered (Tang *et al.*, 2020), pushing back the origin of the green algae. Therefore, we can also hypothesise an older split between chlorophytes and streptophytes during which, environmental conditions were different from the Boring billion. Another

possibility would be the presence of selection that was too weak to be detected by current methods with the small sample size available. However, with the increasing amount of data available in algae, positive selection may become apparent. To conclude, despite the absence of evidence which could explain the loss of amino acids, the shorter β A- β B loop in streptophyte algae is older than initially thought (Spreitzer, 2003).

7.2 Understanding photosynthesis during land colonisation

Following Chapter 3, the aim of Chapter 4 was to observe the extent to which CCM accumulation occurs across the different green algal lineages but also the extent to which Rubisco catalytic properties, and the physiological and molecular characteristics of CCMs are intrinsically linked to each other. Although the physiological data based upon O_2 exchange by cells grown under high and low CO_2 conditions were challenging to obtain with somewhat variable in $K_{0.5}$ values (Chapter 4), a consistent relationship was observed between organic material carbon isotope composition as an indicator of CCM engagement and Rubisco affinity for CO_2 (K_m). The relationship between carbon isotope composition and CCM activity was confirmed in the subsequent study comparing *Chloromonas* with *Chlamydomonas* (Chapter 5).

The interest in streptophyte algae continues to increase with recent studies showing the extent that land plants and streptophyte algae share numerous genes (Cheng *et al.*, 2019). Newly sequenced streptophyte genomes are regularly being published (Wang *et al.*, 2019). The insights in this thesis for the selective pressures on photosynthetic physiology during the transition between chlorophytes and land plants represent another major observation arising from this thesis, in demonstrating co-evolution between Rubisco catalytic properties and CCM activity. Whilst the morphological, reproductive and biochemical traits may show the evolutionary link within the streptophytes (between Charophytes and Embryophytes), this thesis has demonstrated the capacity for Rubisco to evolve and adapt to local CO_2 availability. Within the aerial environment, the improved diffusive supply of CO_2 has seemingly minimised selection pressure to retain a pyrenoid-based CCM, and explain the shift in Rubisco kinetic properties seen in today's C_3 plants (Meyer & Griffiths, 2013), and perhaps the need for hornworts to reinvent a pyrenoid-based, biophysical CCM within the past 100 million years (Villarreal *et al.*, 2014).

However, some physiological observations are still missing. The source of inorganic carbon for the different streptophyte algae used in this study remain unknown, whether as

bicarbonate or free CO₂ (Lucas & Berry, 1985). A number of methods were attempted to analyse the carbon isotope composition of culture media for the streptophyte algae grown under high and low CO₂, with the intention of partitioning carbon sources (Raven *et al.*, 1982). Alternative methods need to be developed in which a detectable amount of inorganic carbon can be concentrated, purified and analysed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer. Samples have been stored to allow these analyses to be undertaken.

Another question relates to the extent that algae did colonise terrestrial habitats directly. Recently, Cheng *et al.*, (2019) showed that early diverging Zygnematophyceae, the closest sister group to land plants (Embryophytes), share some subaerial/terrestrial habitats with the earliest terrestrial forms of plants, surviving desiccation and other biotic and abiotic stresses through horizontal gene transfer from soil bacteria. Measurement of Rubisco catalytic properties in this group of algae would provide additional understanding of the evolution of photosynthetic carbon acquisition. Unfortunately it was not possible to extract and purify Rubisco from *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* (Zygnematophyceae) during the procedures presented in Chapter 4, as it would have provided more insights for the evolution of Rubisco traits during the transition to land. The presence of algae on land raises the question of the expression of CCM in such conditions: Are the pyrenoids in these subaerial/terrestrial species expressed on land? Do the CCMs have reduced activities? If yes, would this influence the catalytic properties? Unfortunately, the only terrestrial species sampled for Rubisco kinetic properties failed, but other candidates could be measured. Other *Klebsormidium* species (*nitens* or *flaccidum*) are, for example, more adapted to subaerial/terrestrial environments and could now be compared under both environments.

7.3 Towards the use of new algal model organisms

Chapters 3 and 4 did not provide evidence of specific *RbcS* residues which could explain pyrenoid occurrence, but showed that the presence of a pyrenoid was widespread across green algal species. Therefore, Chapter 5 focused on five related species which could help us answer the questions which had arisen from Chapters 3 and 4. The *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains had previously been suggested to be closely related, and a comparison of *rbcl* sequences had suggested that losses and gains of the pyrenoid could be found within and between these two closely related genera (Nozaki *et al.* 2002). Earlier work by this group had suggested that the presence of a pyrenoid was not always linked to CCM activity in *Chloromonas* (Morita *et al.*, 1998, 1999). These two genera confirmed their potential as study organisms not only because they showed physiological traits which could help us to

understand the mechanisms behind the absence of CCM/pyrenoid, but also proved to be good candidates to practice and to improve our knowledge on the determinants of pyrenoid and CCM co-expression, in parallel to the work currently ongoing in terms of land plants (Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). The aim was initially to define the responsiveness of any CCM in two species closely related to *Chl. reinhardtii*, as well as three species of *Chloromonas* which varied in their expression of a CCM but lacked a pyrenoid. This study presented initial results with a basic description of inorganic carbon uptake, although more experiments would be required to complete a detailed characterisation of Rubisco kinetic properties. As previously explained, the analyses of growth media would also be crucial to determine the source of inorganic carbon, although (as discussed above) the relationship between carbon isotope composition and $K_{0.5}$ provided compelling evidence. The SEM images showed that even in related species, pyrenoid morphologies were extremely different. *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* exhibited very defined starch sheaths whereas *Chl. augustae* had multiple granules. Such observations raise the question of potential different forms of inorganic carbon uptake, as well as different mechanisms of CCM expression or different protein-protein interactions. Additional work would be required to determine that the activity of any CCM was related to the capacity of the starch sheath to minimise leakiness, or alternatively whether the coupling of inorganic carbon pumps and carbonic anhydrase activities alter the efficiency of the uptake mechanisms. The relative size of cells and the temperature for growth under natural conditions could also indicate that direct uptake of CO₂ (Raven, 1991), or some of CO₂ -bicarbonate interconversion in the periplasmic region (Lucas *et al.*, 1985), could support Rubisco operating in a low temperature, low photorespiratory environment. In addition, the multiple and independent origins of other metabolic pathways, such as C₄ and CAM, support the above hypothesis and consequently multiple type of CCM expression or other mechanisms which could be specific and adapted to local environments.

7.4 Using new technologies to understand CCM expression

The aim of Chapter 6 was to extend the physiological experiments on the *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains in order to start investigating the genetic basis behind the differential occurrence of CCM and pyrenoid, and potential different inorganic carbon uptake mechanisms in these species.

The absence of full genome annotations only allowed preliminary analyses to be completed within the timescale of this study. Indeed, the sequencing analysis presented represented a significant quantity of data for analysis. The genetic distance between *Chl. reinhardtii* and

the five newly-sequenced species slowed down data processing, as everything had to be processed manually and individually adapted to the different species. However, the multiple gain or loss events leading to pyrenoid occurrence were confirmed in such closely related species, and was confirmed by a wider analysis of chloroplast genome phylogeny for the green algae with and without a pyrenoid (Nozaki *et al.*, 2002; Morita *et al.*, 1998, 1999). In addition, the interactions between small and large subunits were interpreted in terms of how densely packaged the Rubisco molecules are in the chloroplasts. However, the analyses of the α -helices confirmed the results found in Chapter 3, with the absence of any residues (or common chemical properties) shared by all the green algae which could help to differentiate species with or without a pyrenoid. No direct EPYC1 homologues were found in the different genome assemblies, which could either suggest either that EPYC1 is specific to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and the limited number of species in which EPYC1 has been identified (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016; 2017), or that EPYC1/similar linker proteins do exist in other forms but have not yet been identified. Finally, the first screening of the 88 genes essential for pyrenoid formation showed various results, and some promising new CCM-associated candidates, but no consistent trends were identified.

Overall, this chapter did not identify common rules to explain pyrenoid occurrence, suggesting a broad CCM diversity. The SEM images of the species used in this research study, not only in *Chlamydomonas* but also in the streptophyte algae showed that pyrenoid morphologies could vary between species, particularly in terms of the starch sheath structures. The absence of starch sheaths in some species (naked pyrenoid; *Klebsormidium subtile*) highlights the difficulty of understanding how the proteins could interact the same way as they do in *Chl. reinhardtii*, suggesting the presence of other mechanisms or interactions are required to bring about Rubisco packaging and pyrenoid tubule formation in other systems (Meyer *et al.*, 2017.)

In the light of the results found in Chapter 6, major experiments/analysis will need to be undertaken. First of all, genome sizes need to be confirmed by cytometry, but a different methods will need to be developed for lysing the cells, possibly following the protocol in Winck *et al.* (2011). In addition, the present phylogeny of green algae could be dated in order to see when the different species lost and/or regained their pyrenoid. Dated phylogenies of green algae already exist (Laurin-Lemay *et al.*, 2012; Becker, 2013; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020) and therefore could be used to calibrate the current tree. Due to the importance of *RbcS* in this dissertation, *RbcS* will need to be re-amplified and specifically

re-sequenced for the 5 species of interest. Primers have been designed, based on the current sequence analyses, and attempts to amplify each specific *RbcS* should reveal the detailed structure. This will help us to identify variations between the multiple copies, and, more importantly, will hopefully confirm that the short βA - βB loop observed in some of these strains are just sequencing issues. The long βA - βB loop in chlorophytes is supported by the general phylogeny of *RbcS* built in Chapter 3, which was based on thousand sequences of *RbcS* across green algae but also supported by the only other *RbcS* sequence deposited on GenBank (*Chloromonas* sp; AAD00448.1). The presence of EPYC1 could be experimentally tested for in the *Chlamydomonas* strains using Zhan *et al.* (2018) protocol developed on *Chl. reinhardtii* or by pull-down assays. Pull-down assays could also be tested in the *Chloromonas* strains to identify potential interactions between Rubisco and EPYC1 or other linker proteins (Mackinder *et al.*, 2017). Based on the current observations two hypotheses are possible: either EPYC1/another linker protein do not exist in species without pyrenoid, or it exists but does not have the same level of expression. Finally, structural and functional annotations of the new sequences will need to be completed, including genome polishing and genome comparisons.

7.5 Overall conclusion

The algal pyrenoid has been the subject of many studies over the years. This research project has built on recent studies and tested whether the local mechanisms observed in particular species could be extended across the green algae more generally. The dissertation showed that the algal CCM is no exception in exhibiting the diversity that Nature has generated over millions of years at all different levels of life. Structures, functions and mechanisms are convergently coupled to the selection pressure of limited CO₂ in the aquatic environment, and the algal pyrenoid reflects the fragile interactions between the contrasting components of an algal CCM, and more complex selective pressures dependent on external environmental conditions. In addition, analyses focussed around a single gene (*RbcS*) have proved that more can continue to be learned from the algal CCM and aquatic photosynthesis more generally from comparisons across the green algal phylogeny. Also, the study has revealed that the occurrence of a CCM can lead to relatively rapid changes in Rubisco kinetic properties and operating efficiency, which can also be inferred from the more recent development of C₄ and CAM from terrestrial C₃ photosynthesis. In addition, the whole genome sequencing used in this research study has only just started to reveal its potential.

Chapter 7: General Discussion

Future work should focus on the remaining Rubisco catalytic properties in species found in subaerial/terrestrial habitats, in conjunction with the more detailed assembly of the 5 new genomes of *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas*.

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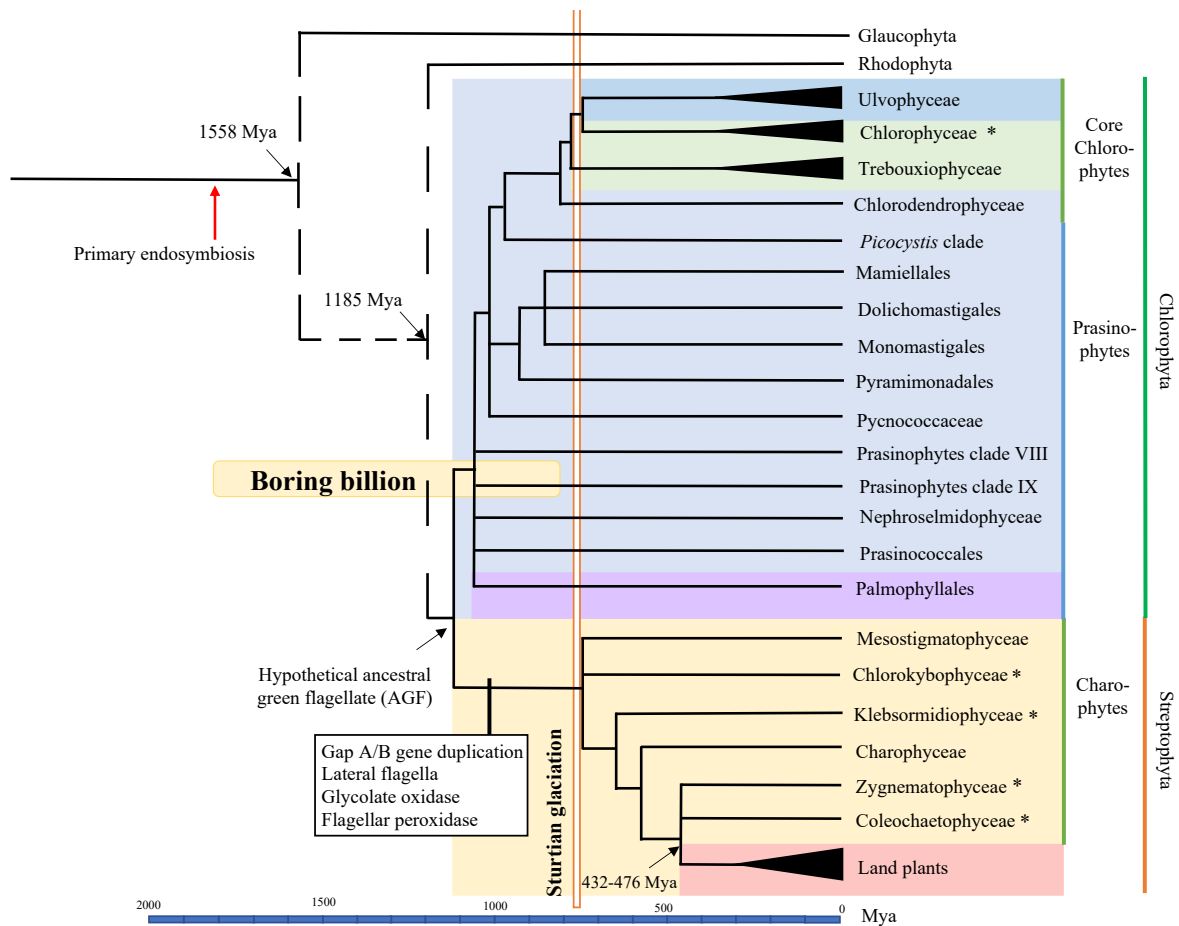
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Appendices

Appendix 1 Evolutionary relationship of algae issued of the primary endosymbiosis and the major glaciation events which occurred during the diversification of the green algae lineages modified from Leliaert *et al.* (2012) and Becker (2013). Evolutionary hypotheses of the streptophyta (morphological and molecular characters) are indicated in the black box. Asterisks indicate lineages to which the sampling representatives belong. Primary symbiosis is indicated by a red arrow and dashed lines represent uncertain relationships.



Appendix 2 Medium recipe used to grow *Cosmarium subtumidum*, *Klebsormidium subtile*, *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* and *Coleochaete scutata*.



Sammlung von Algenkulturen Göttingen
Culture Collection of Algae

Medium Recipe
Version 03.2007

1. Basal Medium (= ES "Erddekot + Salze")

	stock solution [g/100 ml]	nutrient solution [ml]
KNO ₃	1	20
K ₂ HPO ₄	0.1	20
MgSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	0.1	20
soil extract *		30
micronutrient solution **		5
de-ionized or distilled water		905

* **Preparation of soil extract:** Fill a 6 litre flask one third with garden or leaf soil of medium, but not too great humus content which does not contain fertilizers or plant protective agents. Success of soil extract depends on selection of suitable soils. Those with high clay content are usually less satisfactory. Add de-ionized water until it stands 5 cm above the soil and sterilize by heating in a steamer for one hour twice in a 24 h interval. Separate the decanted extract from particles by centrifugation. Fill into small containers of stock solution each of a size appropriate to making a batch of media, autoclave for 20 min at 121°C and store in the refrigerator.

**** Preparation of the micronutrient solution:**

	stock solution [g/100 ml]	applied solution
ZnSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	0.1	1 ml
MnSO ₄ · 4H ₂ O	0.1	2 ml
H ₃ BO ₃	0.2	5 ml
Co(NO ₃) ₂ · 6H ₂ O	0.02	5 ml
Na ₂ MoO ₄ · 2H ₂ O	0.02	5 ml
CuSO ₄ · 5H ₂ O	0.0005	1 ml
de-ionized or distilled water		981 ml
FeSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O		0.7 g
EDTA (Titriplex III, Merck)		0.8 g

Autoclave the components separately in two solutions which are united after cooling.

Solution I: 881 ml distilled water + stock solutions of salts without FeSO₄ + 0.4 g EDTA

Solution II: 100 ml distilled water + 0.7 g FeSO₄ + 0.4 g EDTA

The following modifications of the Basal Medium proved suitable for many strains:

a) Basal Medium with Beef Extract (= ESFL "Erddekot + Salze + Fleisch"): Basal Medium (Medium 1) with 0.1 % beef extract.

b) Basal Medium with Peptone (= ESP "Erddekot + Salze +Peptone"):

Basal Medium (Medium 1) with 0.1% proteose-peptone.

c) Basal Medium with 10 % Euglena Medium and Vitamins (= +V "Erddekot + Salze + Euglena gracilis Medium + Vitamine"):

Basal Medium (Medium 1) plus 10 % Euglena Medium (medium 9) and the vitamins B₁ (5 x 10⁻⁴ g/l) and B₁₂ (5 x 10⁻⁶ g/l), added in sterile solution after autoclaving.

d) Acidified Basal Medium (= ES + H₂SO₄):

Basal Medium (Medium 1) plus 1% conc. H₂SO₄.

Appendix 3 Medium recipe used to grow *Onychonema laeve* and *Spirogyra sp.*



Sammlung von Algenkulturen Göttingen
Culture Collection of Algae

Medium Recipe
Version 11.2008

7. Desmidiacean Medium (= MiEB₁₂ "Micrasterias + Erddekot + Vitamin B₁₂")

	stock solution [g/100 ml]	nutrient solution [ml]
KNO ₃	1	10
(NH ₄) ₂ HPO ₄	0.2	5
MgSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	0.1	10
CaSO ₄	saturated solution	10
soil extract *		20
peat extract (prepared like soil extract)		10
micronutrient solution **		5
de-ionized or distilled water		930

*** Preparation of soil extract (as in medium 1):**

Fill a 6 litre flask one third with garden or leaf soil of medium, but not too great humus content which does not contain fertilizers or plant protective agents. Success of soil extract depends on selection of suitable soils. Those with high clay content are usually less satisfactory. Add de-ionized water until it stands 5 cm above the soil and sterilize by heating in a steamer for one hour twice in a 24 h interval. Separate the decanted extract from particles by centrifugation. Fill into small containers of stock solution each of a size appropriate to making a batch of media, autoclave for 20 min at 121°C and store in the refrigerator.

**** Preparation of the micronutrient solution (as in medium 1):**

	stock solution [g/100 ml]	applied solution
ZnSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O	0.1	1 ml
MnSO ₄ · 4H ₂ O	0.1	2 ml
H ₃ BO ₃	0.2	5 ml
Co(NO ₃) ₂ · 6H ₂ O	0.02	5 ml
Na ₂ MoO ₄ · 2H ₂ O	0.02	5 ml
CuSO ₄ · 5H ₂ O	0.0005	1 ml
de-ionized or distilled water		981 ml
FeSO ₄ · 7H ₂ O		0.7 g
EDTA (Titrplex III, Merck)		0.8 g

Add vitamin B₁₂ (5 x 10⁻⁶ g/l) in sterile solution after cooling.

a) Desmidiacean Medium with Vitamin B₁ (= MiEB₁B₁₂)

Add vitamin B₁ (5 x 10⁻⁴ g/l) in sterile solution to medium 7 after cooling.

Appendix 4 Medium recipe used to grow the *Chlamydomonas* and *Chloromonas* strains .

Bold 3N Medium Recipe

Directions

Modification of Bold's recipe. General purpose freshwater medium used for xenic cultures, especially blue-greens and reds.

For 1 L Total

1. To approximately 850 mL of dH₂O, add each of the components in the order specified (except vitamins) while stirring continuously.

2. Bring the total volume to 1 L with dH₂O.

*For 1.5% agar medium add 15 g of agar into the flask; do not mix.

3. Cover and autoclave medium.

4. When cooled add Vitamin B₁₂.

*For agar medium add vitamin, mix, and dispense before agar solidifies.

5. Store at refrigerator temperature.

#	Component	Amount	Stock Solution Concentration	Final Concentration
1	NaNO ₃ (Fisher BP360-500)	30 mL/L	10 g/400mL dH ₂ O	8.82 mM
2	CaCl ₂ ·2H ₂ O (Sigma C-3881)	10 mL/L	1 g/400mL dH ₂ O	0.17 mM
3	MgSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O (Sigma 230391)	10 mL/L	3 g/400mL dH ₂ O	0.3 mM
4	K ₂ HPO ₄ (Sigma P 3786)	10 mL/L	3 g/400mL dH ₂ O	0.43 mM
5	KH ₂ PO ₄ (Sigma P 0662)	10 mL/L	7 g/400mL dH ₂ O	1.29 mM
6	NaCl (Fisher S271-500)	10 mL/L	1 g/400mL dH ₂ O	0.43 mM
7	P-IV Metal Solution	6 mL/L		
8	Soilwater: GR+ Medium	40 mL/L		
9	Vitamin B ₁₂	1 mL/L		

Appendix 5 Codes and parameters used to fit the Michaelis-Menten kinetics equation to the curves of external inorganic carbon versus photosynthetic rate.

```

jsv5D.,
;umol O2 sec-1 per unit chl=
;(water O2 conc(at 25C= 253uM)* volume*
;(fcond-icond))/(water cond*time*chl wt)

;col(4)= rate of change of voltage
;col(4)= (fcond-icond)/time
;col(7)= rate of change of o2 conc
; wrt time for a conc of HCO3-

col(7)=col(4)*253/0.8

; this value is not normalized
; for chl amt

col(8)=col(7)*30
;col(8)=oxygen evolved in 30 sec

;col(9)=cumulative HCO3 released
cell(9,1)=0
If cell(8,1)> 0 then cell(9,2)=cell(8,1)
else cell(9,2)=cell(9,1)
end if
If cell(8,2)> 0 then cell(9,3)=cell(9,2)+cell(8,2)
else cell(9,3)=cell(9,2)
end if
If cell(8,3)> 0 then cell(9,4)=cell(9,3)+cell(8,3)
else cell(9,4)=cell(9,3)
end if
If cell(8,4)> 0 then cell(9,5)=cell(9,4)+cell(8,4)
else cell(9,5)=cell(9,4)
end if
If cell(8,5)> 0 then cell(9,6)=cell(9,5)+cell(8,5)
else cell(9,6)=cell(9,5)
end if
If cell(8,6)> 0 then cell(9,7)=cell(9,6)+cell(8,6)
else cell(9,7)=cell(9,6)
end if
If cell(8,7)> 0 then cell(9,8)=cell(9,7)+cell(8,7)
else cell(9,8)=cell(9,7)
end if
If cell(8,8)> 0 then cell(9,9)=cell(9,8)+cell(8,8)
else cell(9,9)=cell(9,8)
end if
If cell(8,9)> 0 then cell(9,10)=cell(9,9)+cell(8,9)
else cell(9,10)=cell(9,9)
end if

;col(6)=cumulative HCO3 added
;col(10)= unused HCO3 t each addition
col(10)=col(6)-col(9)

;cell(11,1) - chl in ug/mL
;col(12) normln of dP/dT wrt chl amt

col(12)=col(7)/cell(11,1)
col(13)=col(10)
; col 14-y and col15-x
col(14)=col(12)
col(15)=col(13)

```

Equation
 $f = (V_{max} * x) / (K_m + x)$
 fit f to y
 'fit f to y with weight reciprocal_ysquare
 'fit f to y with weight reciprocal_y

Initial parameters
 $V_{max} = 25$ ' {{previous: 96.5429}}
 $K_m = 25$ ' {{previous: 6.84101}}

Variables
 $x = col(13)$
 $y = col(12)$

Constraints
 $K_m > 0$

Appendices

Appendix 6 R codes used to statistically test $K_{0.5}$ values between streptophyte algae for cells grew under low CO_2 conditions and to statistically compare $K_{0.5}$ values obtained under low and high CO_2 conditions in the *Chloromonas* and *Chlamydomonas* strains.

R CODE FOR COMPARISON $K_{0.5}$ VALUES FOR CELLS GREW UNDER LOW CO_2 CONDITION BETWEEN STREPTOPHYTE ALGAE

```
CA_LCK05<-c(rnorm(3, mean= 62))
KS_LCK05<-c(83.2, 45.2,49.7)
Cosm_LCK05<-c(rnorm(3, mean = 64))
OL_LCK05<-c(rnorm(3, mean= 62))
Spi_LCK05<-c(rnorm(3, mean = 48))
Coscu_LCK05<-c(rnorm(3, mean = 45))
Rein_LCK05<-c(53, 54, 55)

#1CAvsKS
CAvsKS=t.test(CA_LCK05,KS_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CAvsKS
#CAvsSpi
CAvsSpi=t.test(CA_LCK05,Spi_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CAvsSpi
#CAvsCoscu
CAvsCoscu=t.test(CA_LCK05,Coscu_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CAvsCoscu
#CAvsRein
CAvsRein=t.test(CA_LCK05,Rein_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CAvsRein

#2CosmvsKS
CosmvsKS=t.test(Cosm_LCK05,KS_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CosmvsKS
#CosmvsSpi
CosmvsSpi=t.test(Cosm_LCK05,Spi_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CosmvsSpi
#CosmvsCoscu
CosmvsCoscu=t.test(Cosm_LCK05,Coscu_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CosmvsCoscu
#CosmvsRein
CosmvsRein=t.test(Cosm_LCK05,Rein_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
CosmvsRein

#3OLvsKS
OLvsKS=t.test(OL_LCK05,KS_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
OLvsKS
#OLvsSpi
OLvsSpi=t.test(OL_LCK05,Spi_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
OLvsSpi
#OLvsCoscu
OLvsCoscu=t.test(OL_LCK05,Coscu_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
OLvsCoscu
#OLvsRein
OLvsRein=t.test(OL_LCK05,Rein_LCK05, var.equal = TRUE)
OLvsRein
```

R CODE COMPARISON $K_{0.5}$ VALUES LOW VS HIGH CO_2 CONDITIONS

```
Aug_LC<-c(71.3, 35.34,60.34)
Muta_LC<-c(77.19, 81.13,93.35)
Cla_LC<-c(155.39, 226.66, 313.49)
Rosae_LC<-c(233.02, 338.19, 340.97)
Serbi_LC<-c(209.86, 222.30, 250.06, 264.86)
Rein_LC<-c(53, 54, 55)

Aug_HC<-c(444.45,525.58)
Muta_HC<-c(461.93, 1134.02, 600.52)
Cla_HC<-c(716.12, 598.51, 149.181)
Rosae_HC<-c(1049.66, 783.87, 743.65, 926.66)
Serbi_HC<-c(823, 821, 822)
Rein_HC<-c(148, 149, 150)
```

```
#NORMALITY TESTS
shapiro.test(Aug_LC)#p-value = 0.5766
```

Appendices

```
shapiro.test(Muta_LC)#p-value = 0.4507
shapiro.test(Cla_LC)#p-value = 0.8916
shapiro.test(Rosae_LC)#p-value = 0.04314
shapiro.test(Serbi_LC)#p-value = 0.6996
shapiro.test(Rein_LC)#p-value =

shapiro.test(Aug_HC)#
shapiro.test(Muta_HC)#p-value = 0.3754
shapiro.test(Cla_HC)#p-value = 0.3778
shapiro.test(Rosae_HC)# p-value = 0.6112
shapiro.test(Serbi_HC)#p-value = 1
shapiro.test(Rein_HC)#p-value =

#T-TESTS
testAug=t.test(Aug_LC, Aug_HC, var.equal=TRUE)
testAug#p-value = 0.000999

testMuta=t.test(Muta_LC, Muta_HC, var.equal=TRUE)
testMuta#p-value = 0.03408

testCla=t.test(Cla_LC, Cla_HC, var.equal=TRUE)
testCla#p-value = 0.2251

testRosae=t.test(Rosae_LC, Rosae_HC, var.equal=TRUE)
testRosae#p-value = 0.001284

testSerbi=t.test(Serbi_LC, Serbi_HC, var.equal=TRUE)
testSerbi#p-value = 2.012e-07

testRein=t.test(Rein_LC, Rein_HC, var.equal=TRUE)
testRein#p-value=3.272e-08
```




Appendices

[illegible]

[illegible]

Appendix 8 Pyrenoid diagnostic for all the species present in the phylogeny of *RbcS* and the associated references. Species without pyrenoid are highlighted in light grey.

Species name	presence or absence of the pyrenoid	Charophytes/ Chlorophytes	References
<i>Bambusina borrieri</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Algaebase
<i>Chaetosphaeridium globosum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Moestrup (1974)
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i>	Presence	Charophytes	SEM image
<i>Cosmocladium cf. constrictum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Leghari (2001)
<i>Coleochaete irregularis</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Halder & Halder (2015)
<i>Cosmarium broomei</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Gerrath (1968)
<i>Cosmarium ochthodes</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Gerrath (1968)
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	SEM image
<i>Cosmarium tinctum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Gerrath (2003)
<i>Cylindrocystis brebissonii</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Croasdale & Grönblad (1964)
<i>Cylindrocystis cushleackae</i>	Presence	Charophytes	York <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Cylindrocystis sp.</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Prasanna <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Desmidium aptogonum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Algaebase
<i>Entransia fimbriata</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Cook (2004)
<i>Euastrum affine</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Aquino <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>Gonatozygon kinahanii</i>	Presence	Charophytes	West (1904)
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	Presence	Charophytes	SEM image
<i>Mesotaenium braunii</i>	Presence	Charophytes	York <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Mesotaenium caldariorum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	West (1904)
<i>Mesotaenium endlicherianum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	West (1904)
<i>Mesotaenium kramstae</i>	Presence	Charophytes	York <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Micrasterias fimbriata</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Škaloud <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Mougeotia sp.</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Wagner & Klein (1981)
<i>Nucleotaenium eifelense</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Gontcharov & Melkonian (2010)
<i>Onychonema laeve</i>	Presence	Charophytes	SEM image
<i>Penium margaritaceum</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Gerrath (1968)
<i>Planotaenium ohtanii</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Gontcharov & Melkonian (2010)
<i>Pleurotaenium trabecula</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Domozych <i>et al.</i> , (2007)
<i>Roya obtusa</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Ljunggren & Oja (1961)
<i>Spirotaenia minuta</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Brook (1992)
<i>Spirogyra sp.</i>	Presence	Charophytes	SEM image
<i>Staurodesmus omearii</i>	Presence	Charophytes	Coesel & Van Geest (2016)
<i>Microspora cf. tumidula</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Stewart <i>et al.</i> (1973)
<i>Ankistrodesmus sp.</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Fawley <i>et al.</i> (2006)
<i>Aphanochaete repens</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Algaebase

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<i>Asteromonas gracilis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Peterfi & Manton (1968)
<i>Blastophysa cf. rhizopus</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Chappell <i>et al.</i> (1991)
<i>Bolbocoleon piliferum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	O'Kelly <i>et al.</i> (2004)
<i>Botryococcus sudeticus</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Komarek <i>et al.</i> (1983)
<i>Botryococcus braunii</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Wolf & Cox (1981)
<i>Botryococcus terribilis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Queiroz Mendes <i>et al.</i> (2012)
<i>Bryopsis plumosa</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Ogawa (1988)
<i>Carteria crucifera</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Lembi & Lang (1965)
<i>Carteria obtusa</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	York <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Cephaleuros virescens</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Chapman <i>et al.</i> (1981)
<i>Chaetopeltis orbicularis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Wujek & Thompson (1999)
<i>Chlamydomonas cribrum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Ettl (1976)
<i>Chlamydomonas sp.</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Lembi & Lang (1965)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Mackinder <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>Chlorosarcinopsis halophila</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Guillard <i>et al.</i> (1975)
<i>Chloromonas oogama</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Buckheim <i>et al.</i> (1997)
<i>Chloromonas rosae</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Ettl (1976)
<i>Coccomyxa pringsheimii</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Garbayo <i>et al.</i> (2012)
<i>Coccomyxa subellipsoidea</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Acton (1909)
<i>Codium fragile</i>	na	Chlorophytes	na
<i>Cylindrocapsa geminella</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Sluiman (1985)
<i>Dunaliella primolecta</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Öpik & Flynn (1989)
<i>Dunaliella salina</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Melkonian & Preisig (1986)
<i>Dunaliella tertiolecta</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Tsuzuki <i>et al.</i> (1986)
<i>Entocladia endozoica</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Goldberg <i>et al.</i> (1984)
<i>Eremosphaera viridis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Holdsworth (1971)
<i>Eudorina elegans</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Gottlieb & Goldstein (1977)
<i>Frittschiella tuberosa</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Melkonian (1975)
<i>Geminella sp.</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	York <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Golenkinia longispicula</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	York <i>et al.</i> (2002)
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Wygash (1964)
<i>Hafniomonas reticulata</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Nakada <i>et al.</i> (2007)
<i>Halochlorococcum marinum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Komarek <i>et al.</i> (1983)
<i>Helicodictyon planctonicum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Webster-Smith <i>et al.</i> (1983)
<i>Heterochlamydomonas inaequalis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Algaebase
<i>Ignatius tetrasporus</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Watanabe & Nakayama (2007)
<i>Interfilum paradoxum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Mikhailyuk <i>et al.</i> (2008)
<i>Leptosira obovata</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Stewart <i>et al.</i> (1973)
<i>Lobomonas rostrata</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Hazen (1922)
<i>Microthamnion kuetzingianum</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Watson (1975)
<i>Nannochloris atomus</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Butcher (1952)

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<i>Neochloris</i> sp.	Presence	Chlorophytes	Watanabe <i>et al.</i> (2000)
<i>Neochlorosarcina</i> sp.	Presence	Chlorophytes	Watanabe & Nakayama (2007)
<i>Ochlochaete</i> sp.	Presence	Chlorophytes	Burrows (1991)
<i>Oedogonium cardiacum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Hoffman (1968)
<i>Oedogonium foveolatum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Hoffman (1968)
<i>Oltmannsiellopsis viridis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Chihara <i>et al.</i> (1986)
<i>Oogamochlamys gigantea</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Pröschold <i>et al.</i> (2001)
<i>Pandorina morum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Fulton (1978)
<i>Parachlorella kessleri</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Juárez <i>et al.</i> (2011)
<i>Pedinomonas minor</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Moestrup (1991)
<i>Percursaria percursa</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Stewart <i>et al.</i> (1973)
<i>Phacotus lenticularis</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Hepperle & Krienitz (1996)
<i>Pirula salina</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Burrows (1991)
<i>Planophila terrestris</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Booton <i>et al.</i> (1998)
<i>Prasiola crispa</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Holzinger <i>et al.</i> (2006)
<i>Pteromonas</i> sp.	Presence	Chlorophytes	West (1904)
<i>Scherffelia dubia</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Melkonian & Preisig (1986)
<i>Spermatozopsis exsultans</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Melkonian <i>et al.</i> (1987)
<i>Spermatozopsis similis</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Preisig & Melkonian (1984)
<i>Stichococcus bacillaris</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Massalski <i>et al.</i> (2001)
<i>Stigeoclonium helveticum</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Stewart <i>et al.</i> (1973)
<i>Tetraselmis chui</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Chengwu & Hongjun (2018)
<i>Tetraselmis striata</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Hori <i>et al.</i> (1986)
<i>Trebouxia arboricola</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Friedl (1989)
<i>Trentepohlia annulata</i>	Absence	Chlorophytes	Algaebase
<i>Volvox aureus</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Darden (1966)
<i>Volvox carteri</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Kochert & Olsen (1970)
<i>Volvox globator</i>	Presence	Chlorophytes	Darden & William (1966)
<i>Picocystis salinarum</i>	Absence	<i>Incertae sedis</i>	Lewin <i>et al.</i> (2000)
<i>Bathycoccus prasinus</i>	Absence	Prasinophytes	Eikrem & Throndsen (1990)
<i>Dolichomastix tenuilepis</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Throndsen & Zingone (1997)
<i>Micromonas pusilla</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Van Baren <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>Monomastix opisthostigma</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Belcher & Swale (1961)
<i>Nephroselmis olivacea</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Suda <i>et al.</i> (2004)
<i>Ostreococcus lucimarus</i>	Absence	Prasinophytes	Meyer & Griffiths (2013)
<i>Prasinococcus capsulatus</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Guillou <i>et al.</i> (2004)
<i>Prasinoderma coloniale</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Hasegawa <i>et al.</i> (1996)
<i>Pycnococcus provasolii</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Guillard <i>et al.</i> (1991)
<i>Pyramimonas parkeae</i>	Presence	Prasinophytes	Pearson & Norris (1975)
<i>coccoid-prasinophyte</i>	na	Prasinophytes	na

Appendix 9 Script used with PyMOL (Schrödinger, 2010) to identify interacting residues in new modelled Rubisco.

from pymol import stored

```
def interfaceResidues(cmpx, cA='c. A', cB='c. B', cutoff=0.5, selName="interface"):
    """
    interfaceResidues -- finds 'interface' residues between two chains in a complex.

    PARAMS
        cmpx
            The complex containing cA and cB

        cA
            The first chain in which we search for residues at an interface
            with cB

        cB
            The second chain in which we search for residues at an interface
            with cA

        cutoff
            The difference in area OVER which residues are considered
            interface residues. Residues whose dASA from the complex to
            a single chain is greater than this cutoff are kept. Zero
            keeps all residues.

        selName
            The name of the selection to return.

    RETURNS
        * A selection of interface residues is created and named
          depending on what you passed into selName
        * An array of values is returned where each value is:
          ( modelName, residueNumber, dASA )

    NOTES
        If you have two chains that are not from the same PDB that you want
        to complex together, use the create command like:
            create myComplex, pdb1WithChainA or pdb2withChainX
        then pass myComplex to this script like:
            interfaceResidues myComplex, c. A, c. X

        This script calculates the area of the complex as a whole. Then,
        it separates the two chains that you pass in through the arguments
        cA and cB, alone. Once it has this, it calculates the difference
        and any residues ABOVE the cutoff are called interface residues.

    AUTHOR:
        Jason Vertrees, 2009.
    """
    # Save user's settings, before setting dot_solvent
    oldDS = cmd.get("dot_solvent")
    cmd.set("dot_solvent", 1)

    # set some string names for temporary objects/selections
    tempC, selName1 = "tempComplex", selName+"1"
    chA, chB = "chA", "chB"

    # operate on a new object & turn off the original
    cmd.create(tempC, cmpx)
    cmd.disable(cmpx)

    # remove cruft and irrelevant chains
    cmd.remove(tempC + " and not (polymer and (%s or %s))" % (cA, cB))

    # get the area of the complete complex
    cmd.get_area(tempC, load_b=1)
    # copy the areas from the loaded b to the q, field.
    cmd.alter(tempC, 'q=b')
```

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```
# extract the two chains and calc. the new area
# note: the q fields are copied to the new objects
# chA and chB
cmd.extract(chA, tempC + " and (" + cA + ")")
cmd.extract(chB, tempC + " and (" + cB + ")")
cmd.get_area(chA, load_b=1)
cmd.get_area(chB, load_b=1)

# update the chain-only objects w/the difference
cmd.alter( "%s or %s" % (chA,chB), "b=b-q" )

# The calculations are done. Now, all we need to
# do is to determine which residues are over the cutoff
# and save them.
stored.r, rVal, seen = [], [], []
cmd.iterate("%s or %s" % (chA, chB), 'stored.r.append((model,resi,b))')

cmd.enable(cmpx)
cmd.select(selName1, None)
for (model,resi,diff) in stored.r:
    key=resi+"-"+model
    if abs(diff)>=float(cutoff):
        if key in seen: continue
        else: seen.append(key)
        rVal.append( (model,resi,diff) )
        # expand the selection here; I chose to iterate over stored.r instead of
        # creating one large selection b/c if there are too many residues PyMOL
        # might crash on a very large selection. This is pretty much guaranteed
        # not to kill PyMOL; but, it might take a little longer to run.
        cmd.select( selName1, selName1 + " or (%s and i. %s)" % (model,resi))

# this is how you transfer a selection to another object.
cmd.select(selName, cmpx + " in " + selName1)
# clean up after ourselves
cmd.delete(selName1)
cmd.delete(chA)
cmd.delete(chB)
cmd.delete(tempC)
# show the selection
cmd.enable(selName)

# reset users settings
cmd.set("dot_solvent", oldDS)

return rVal

cmd.extend("interfaceResidues", interfaceResidues)
```

Appendix 10 Scripts used with PyMOL (Schrödinger, 2010) to identify accessible residues in new modelled Rubisco.

<http://pymolwiki.org/index.php/FindSurfaceResidues>

```
"""

from __future__ import print_function
from pymol import cmd

def findSurfaceAtoms(selection="all", cutoff=2.5, quiet=1):
    """
    DESCRIPTION

    Finds those atoms on the surface of a protein
    that have at least 'cutoff' exposed A**2 surface area.

    USAGE

    findSurfaceAtoms [ selection, [ cutoff ] ]

    SEE ALSO

    findSurfaceResidues
    """
    cutoff, quiet = float(cutoff), int(quiet)

    tmpObj = cmd.get_unused_name("_tmp")
    cmd.create(tmpObj, "(" + selection + ") and polymer", zoom=0)

    cmd.set("dot_solvent", 1, tmpObj)
    cmd.get_area(selection=tmpObj, load_b=1)

    # threshold on what one considers an "exposed" atom (in A**2):
    cmd.remove(tmpObj + " and b < " + str(cutoff))

    selName = cmd.get_unused_name("exposed_atm_")
    cmd.select(selName, "(" + selection + ") in " + tmpObj)

    cmd.delete(tmpObj)

    if not quiet:
        print("Exposed atoms are selected in: " + selName)

    return selName

def findSurfaceResidues(selection="all", cutoff=2.5, doShow=0, quiet=1):
    """
    DESCRIPTION

    Finds those residues on the surface of a protein
    that have at least 'cutoff' exposed A**2 surface area.

    USAGE

    findSurfaceResidues [ selection, [ cutoff, [ doShow ] ] ]

    ARGUMENTS

    selection = string: object or selection in which to find exposed
    residues {default: all}

    cutoff = float: cutoff of what is exposed or not {default: 2.5 Ang**2}

    RETURNS

    (list: (chain, resv ) )
    A Python list of residue numbers corresponding

    to those residues w/more exposure than the cutoff.

    """
    cutoff, doShow, quiet = float(cutoff), int(doShow), int(quiet)
```

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```
selName = findSurfaceAtoms(selection, cutoff, quiet)

exposed = set()
cmd.iterate(selName, "exposed.add((chain,resv))", space=locals())

selNameRes = cmd.get_unused_name("exposed_res_")
cmd.select(selNameRes, "byres " + selName)

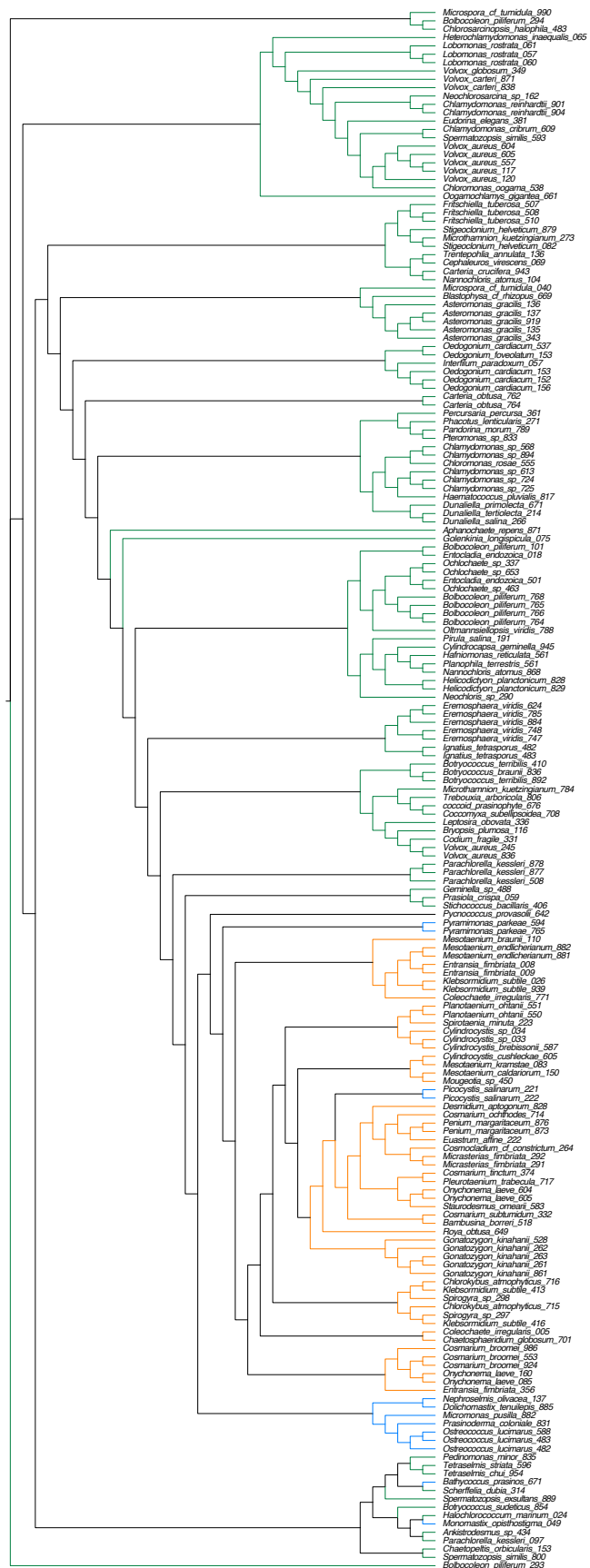
if not quiet:
    print("Exposed residues are selected in: " + selNameRes)

if doShow:
    cmd.show_as("spheres", "(" + selection + ") and polymer")
    cmd.color("white", selection)
    cmd.color("yellow", selNameRes)
    cmd.color("red", selName)

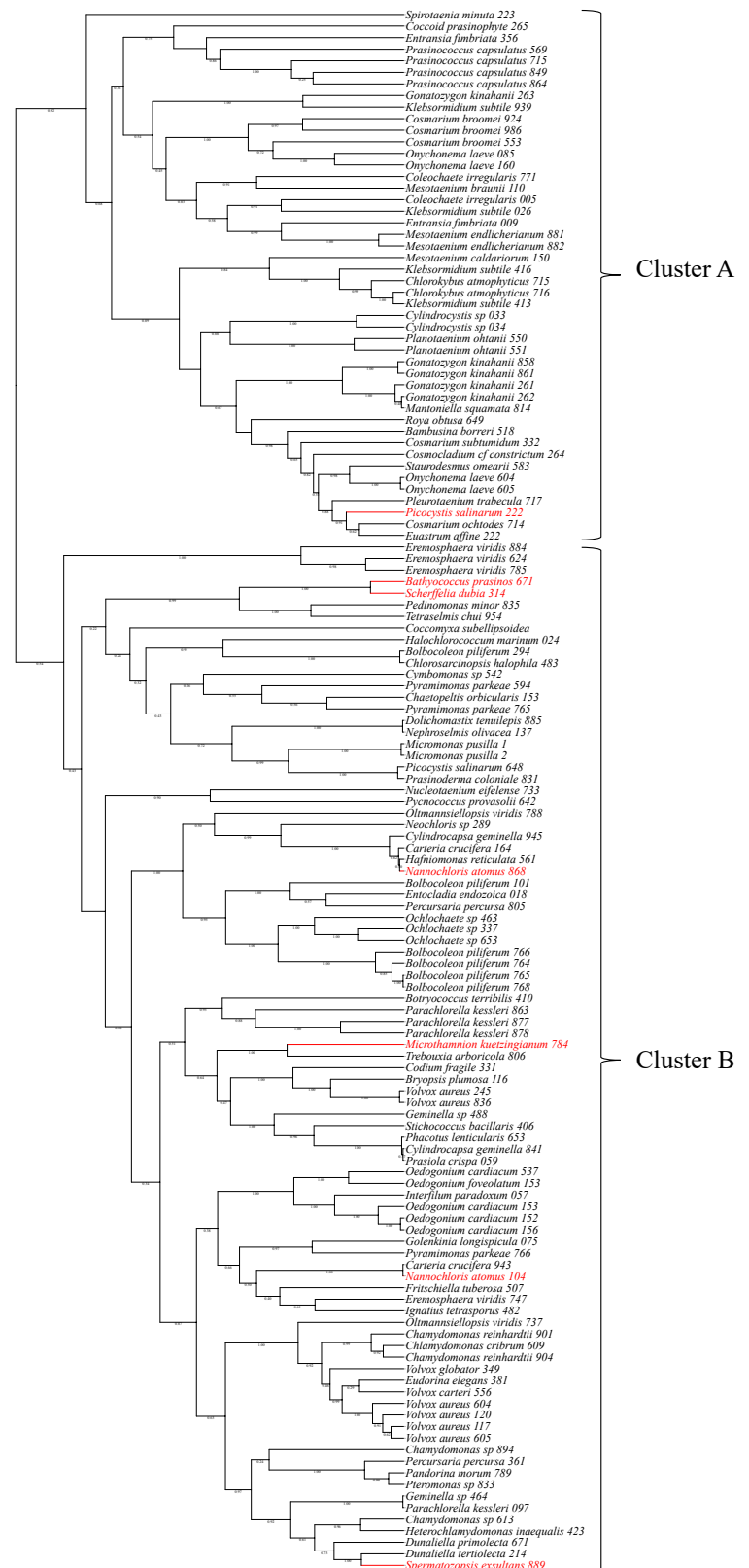
return sorted(exposed)

cmd.extend("findSurfaceAtoms", findSurfaceAtoms)
cmd.extend("findSurfaceResidues", findSurfaceResidues)
```

Appendix 11 Phylogeny of *RbcS* built with RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) without the bA-bB loop. Streptophyte algae were labelled in orange, prasinophytes in blue and chlorophytes in green. The pyrenoid appears to have been lost 12 times across this phylogeny of green algae.



Appendix 12 DNA phylogeny of *RbcS* used for the PAML analysis and built with BEAST v2.3.1. As observed with the protein phylogeny, all the core chlorophytes are clustered together (Cluster B) with some of the prasinophytes. The top cluster includes all the streptophyte algae with the remaining prasinophytes. Species without pyrenoid are labelled in red. Foreground branches used for the branch model (codeml) in Paml are also labelled in red.



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Appendix 13 Summary of the different parameters obtained after the ten different tests for RELAX selection (Wertheim *et al.*, 2014).

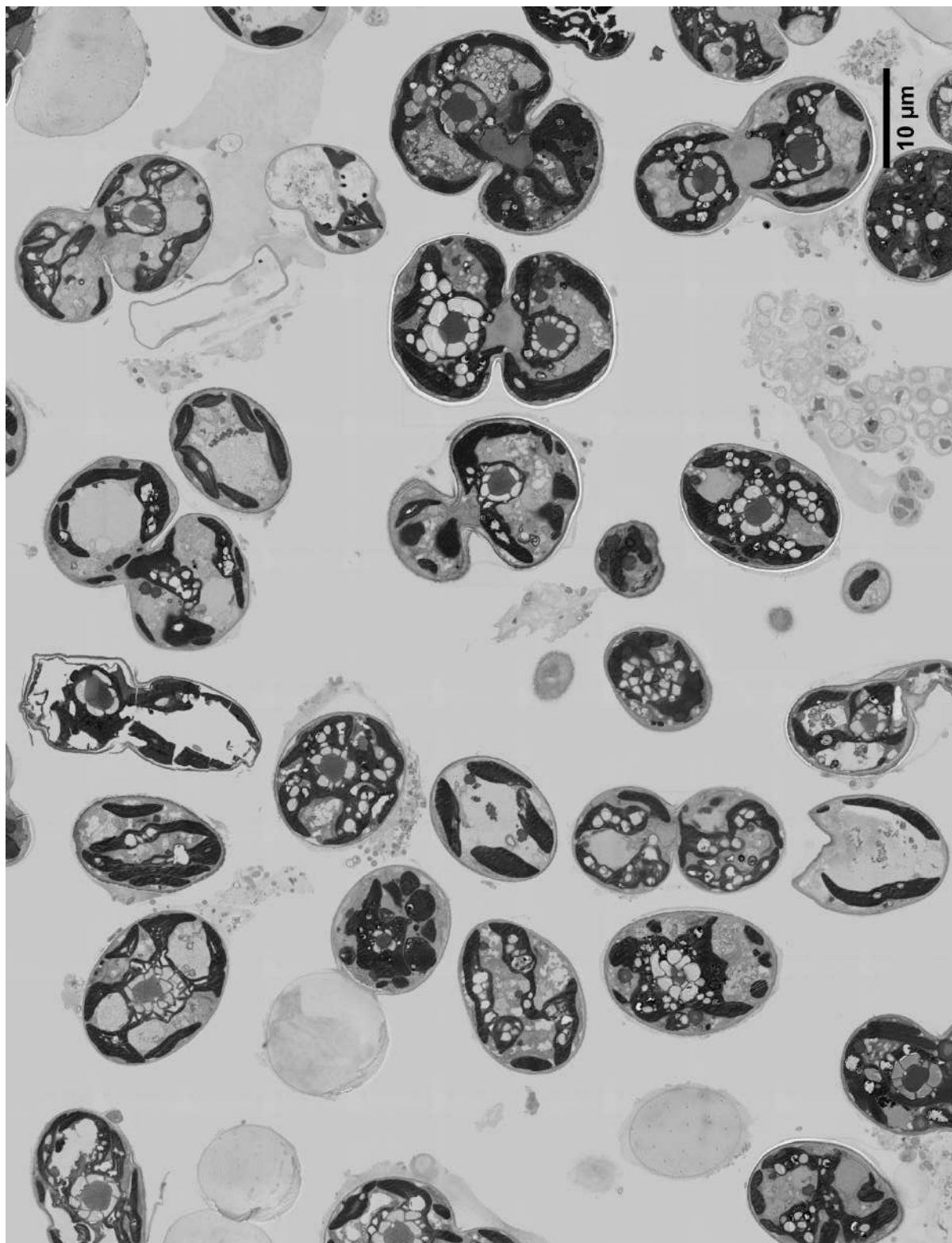
All the streptophyte algae labelled	K	p	LR	
Test 1	1.25	0.065	3.4	intensification not significant
Test 2	1.26	1	-276.86	intensification not significant
Test 3	1.31	0.024	5.12	intensification significant
Test 4	1.36	1	-6.78	intensification not significant
Test 5	1.84	1	-135.5	intensification not significant
Test 6	1.87	1	-199.2	intensification not significant
Test 7	1.81	1	-171.75	intensification not significant
Test 8	1.29	1	-0.09	intensification not significant
Test 9	1.31	0.024	5.1	intensification significant
Test 10	1.82	1	-207.25	intensification not significant
RELAXATION NOT SIGNIFICANT				
Basal branch of the streptophyte algae labelled	K	p	LR	
Test 1	1	1	-11.92	relaxation not significant
Test 2	0.28	0.002	9.3	relaxation significant
Test 3	1	1	-71.11	relaxation not significant
Test 4	1	1	-0.51	relaxation not significant
Test 5	1	1	0	relaxation not significant
Test 6	1	1	-7.3	relaxation not significant
Test 7	1	1	-0.01	relaxation not significant
Test 8	1	1	-3.31	relaxation not significant
Test 9	1	1	-7.11	relaxation not significant
Test 10	1	1	0	relaxation not significant
RELAXATION NOT SIGNIFICANT				
All the chlorophytes labelled	K	p	LR	
Test 1	0.82	0.022	5.27	relaxation significant
Test 2	1.02	1	-0.28	intensification not significant
Test 3	0.74	1	-109.2	relaxation not significant
Test 4	1.31	1	-60.28	intensification not significant
Test 5	1.09	1	-13.36	intensification not significant
Test 6	1.11	1	-49.27	intensification not significant
Test 7	1.07	1	-78.17	intensification not significant
Test 8	0.8	1	-5.57	relaxation not significant
Test 9	1.08	1	-5.34	intensification not significant
Test 10	0.79	0.001	11	relaxation significant
RELAXATION NOT SIGNIFICANT				

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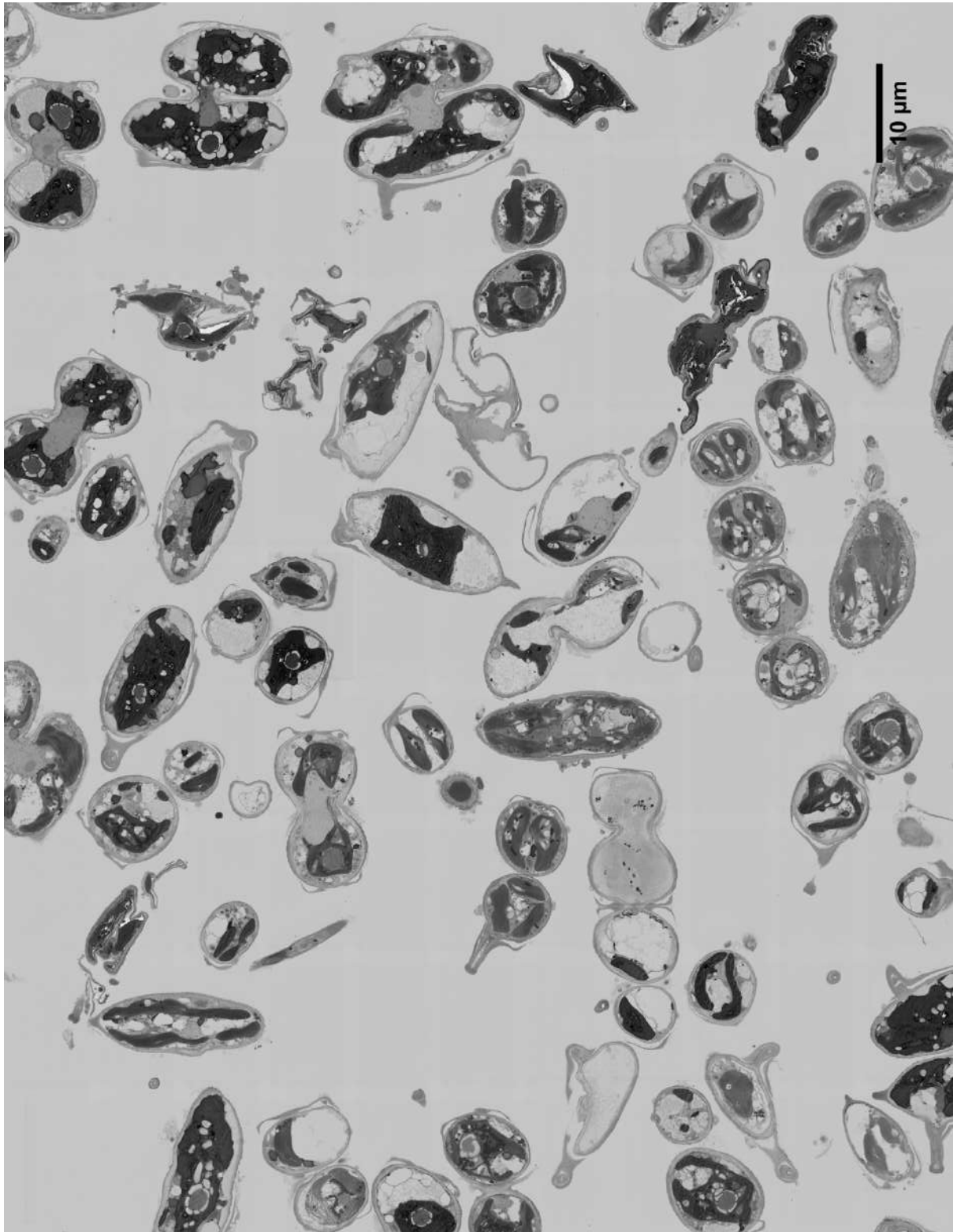
Basal branch of the chlorophyte labelled	K	p	LR	
Test 1	0.28	0.032	4.6	relaxation significant
Test 2				
Test 3	1	1	-0.09	relaxation not significant
Test 4	1	1	-17.45	relaxation not significant
Test 5	0.29	1	-22.03	relaxation not significant
Test 6	1	1	-30.39	relaxation not significant
Test 7	1	1	-2.38	relaxation not significant
Test 8	1	1	-0.03	relaxation not significant
Test 9	0.28	0.017	5.65	relaxation significant
Test 10	1	1	-0.03	relaxation not significant
RELAXATION NOT SIGNIFICANT				

Basal branches of the tree labelled	K	p	LR	
Test 1	0.28	0.009	6.88	relaxation significant
Test 2	0.35	0.003	8.77	relaxation significant
Test 3	1	1	-27.8	relaxation not significant
Test 4	1	1	-0.01	relaxation not significant
Test 5				
Test 6	1	1	-37.85	relaxation not significant
Test 7	1	1	-0.4	relaxation not significant
Test 8	1	1	-0.03	relaxation not significant
Test 9	1	1	-4.49	relaxation not significant
Test 10	1	1	-1.83	relaxation not significant
RELAXATION NOT SIGNIFICANT				

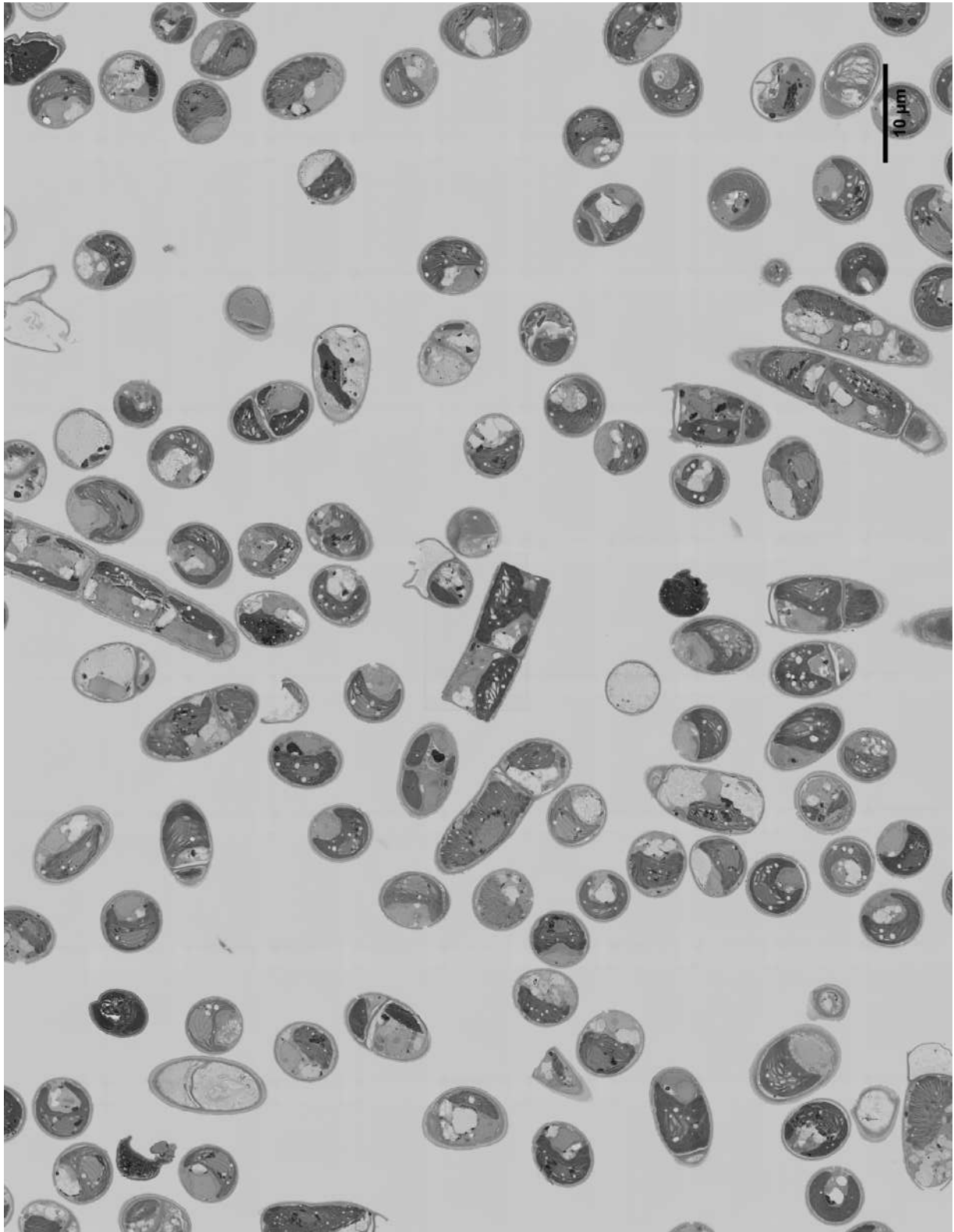
Appendix 14 Scanning Electronic Microscopy image of *Cosmarium subtumidum*.



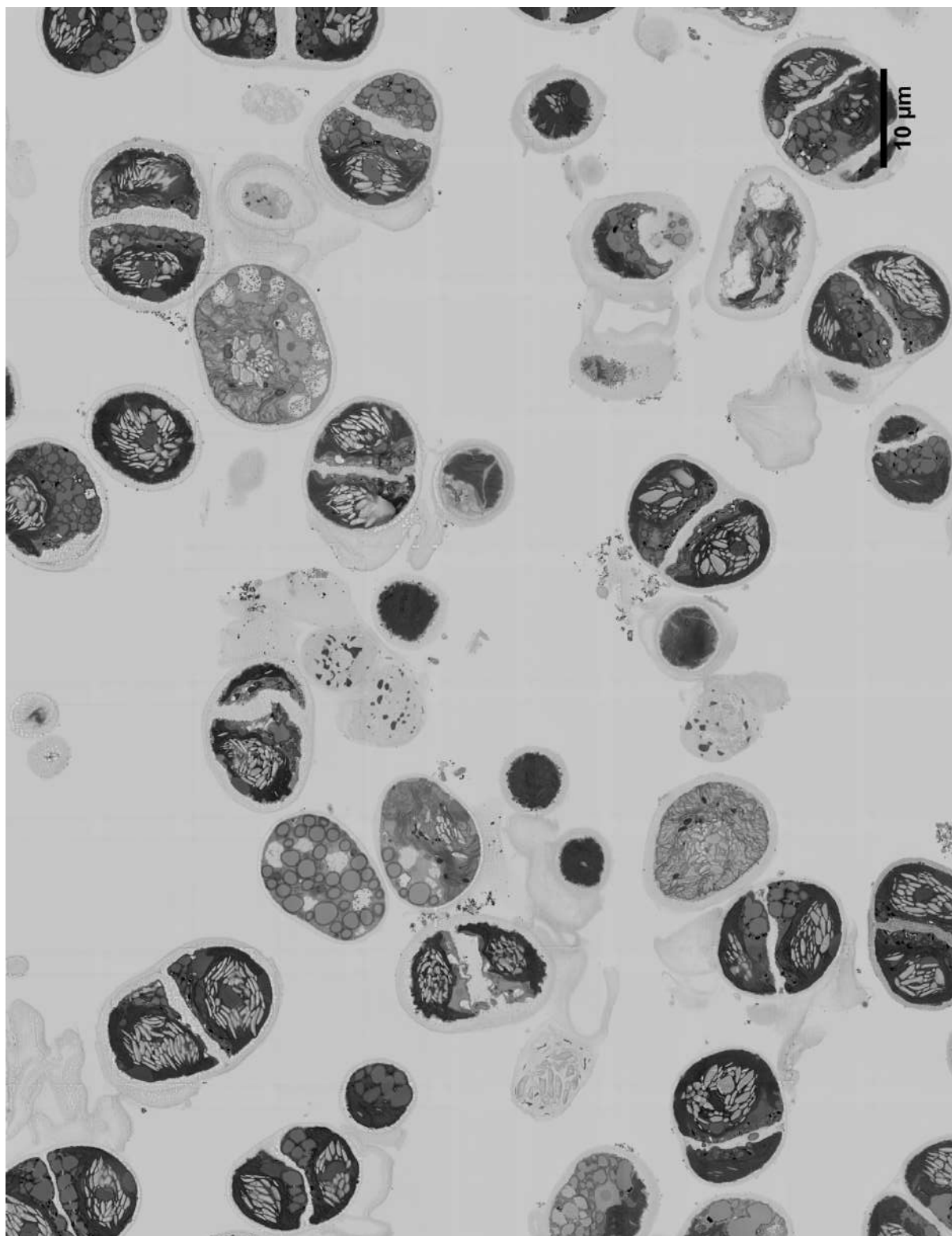
Appendix 15 Scanning Electronic Microscopy image of *Onychonema laeve*.



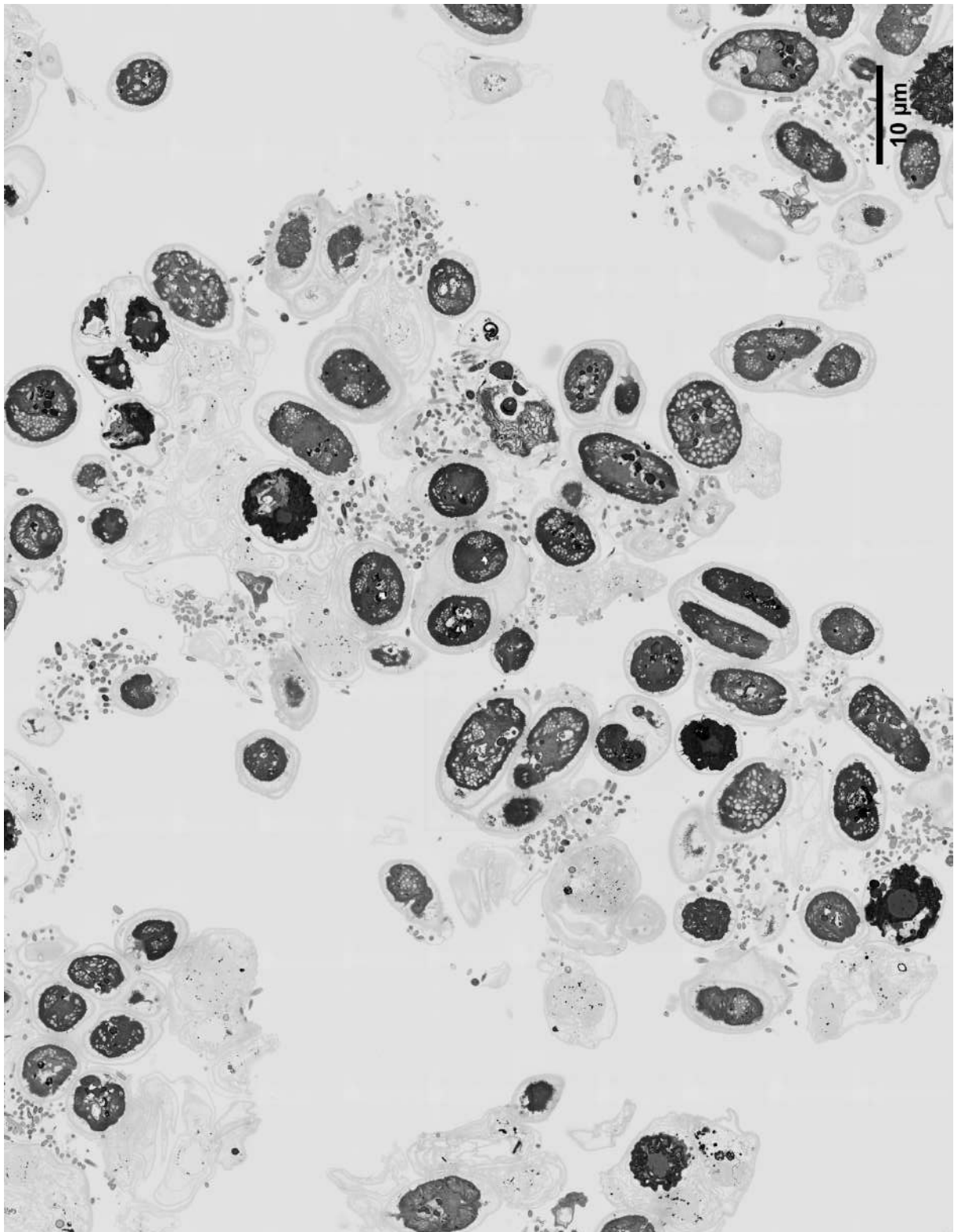
Appendix 16 Scanning Electronic Microscopy image of *Klebsormidium subtile*.



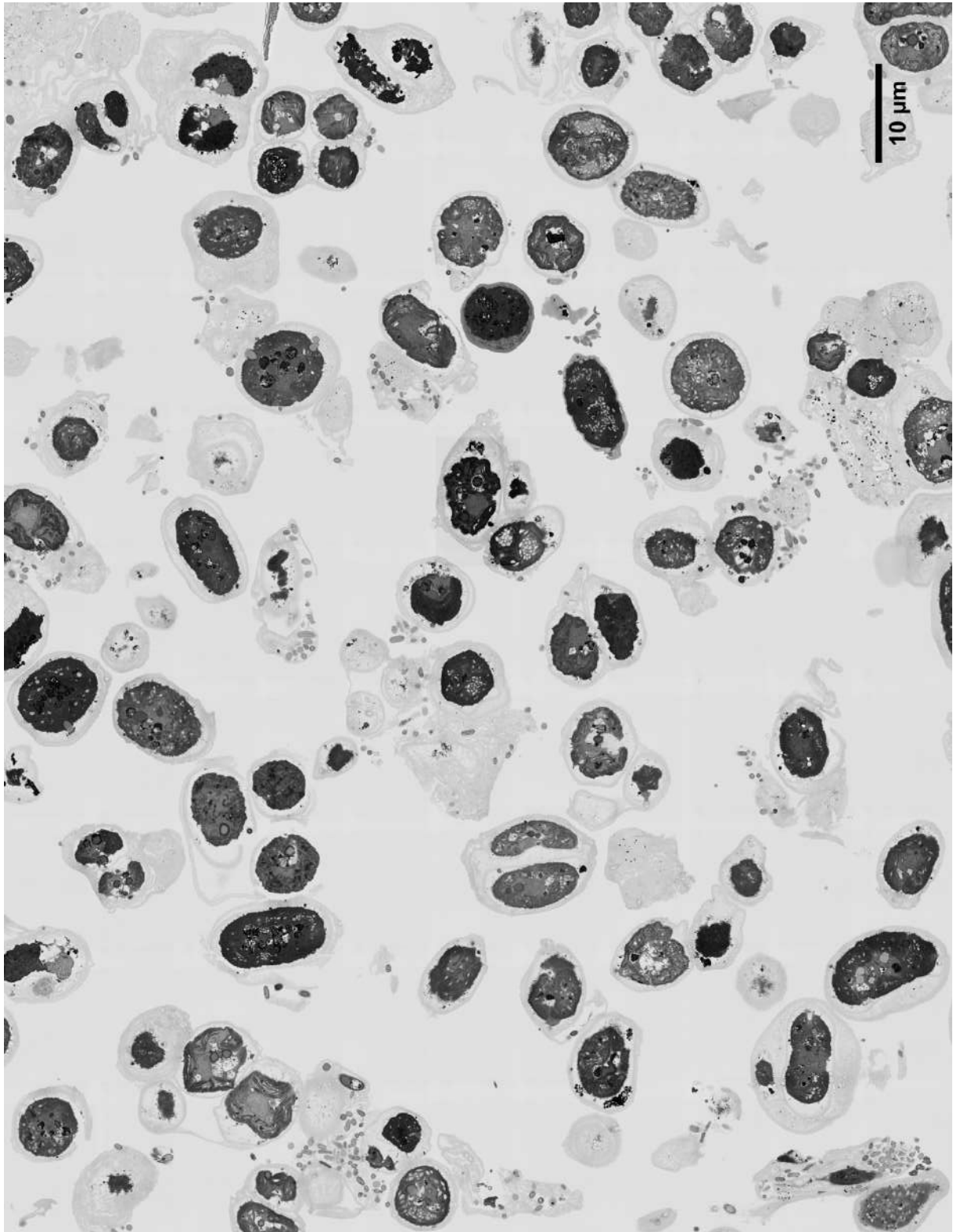
Appendix 17 Scanning Electronic Microscopy image of *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*.



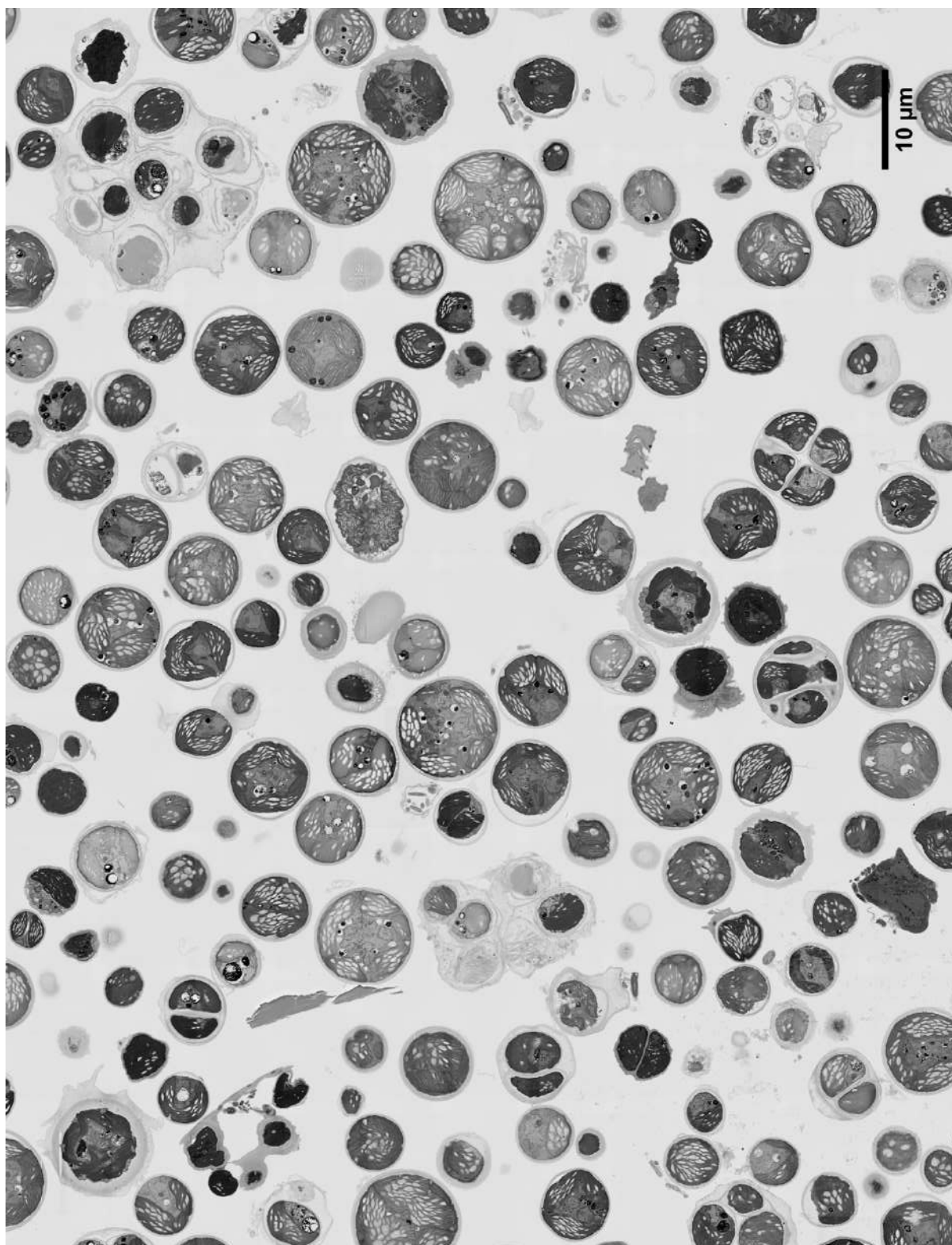
Appendix 18 Scanning Electron Microscopy of *Chlamydomonas mutabilis*.



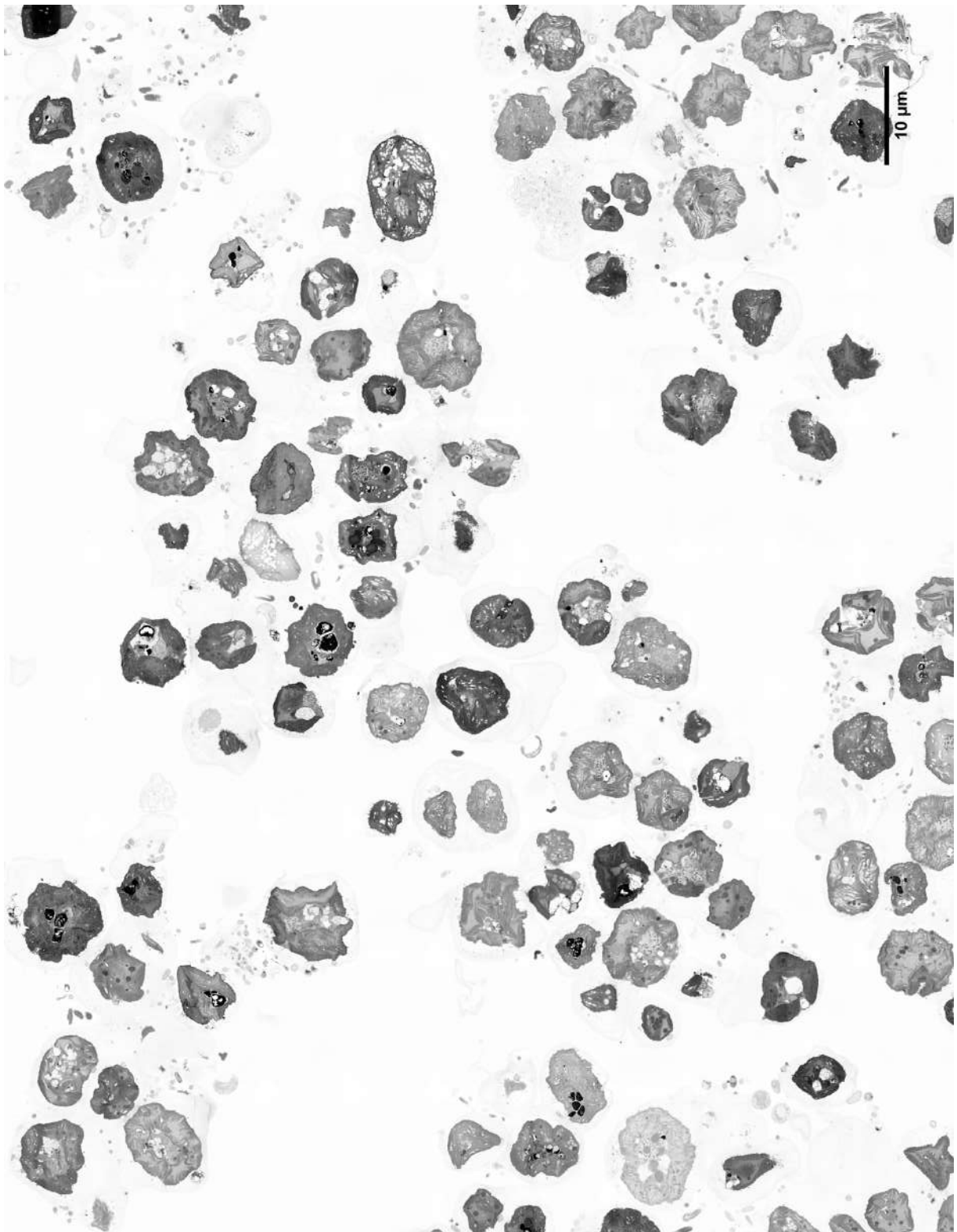
Appendix 19 Scanning Electron Microscopy of *Chloromonas rosae*.



Appendix 20 Scanning Electron Microscopy of *Chloromonas serbinowii*.



Appendix 21 Scanning Electron Microscopy of *Chloromonas clathrata*.



Appendices

Appendix 22 List of the all the 44 CDS chloroplastic genes used for phylogeny reconstruction and extracted from the new five whole genome sequencing.

>Chlamydomonas_augustae-atpA

[illegible]

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Appendices

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Myriam Goudet – April 2020

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Appendices

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>Chloromonas rosae - petA

[illegible]

>Chloromonas rosae - petB

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>Chloromonas rosae - petD

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>Chloromonas rosae - petG

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>Chloromonas rosae - petL

atgtaacaattacaagttacgtggtattattagttggtgcgtagggtttacgtagggatttatcttggcttttaaaagtgggttaaattgatttaa

Appendices

>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psaA

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ctttaa
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>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psaB

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```

```
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```

>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psaC

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```

>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psaJ

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```

>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psbA

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psbB

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ctgtgaagctttt
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>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psbC

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ - psbD

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aaggga
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Appendices

>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbE

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbF

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbH

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbI

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbK

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbM

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbN

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_psbZ

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_rbclL

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_rpl5

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_rpl14

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_rpl16

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>Chloromonas_rosae __ -_rpl20

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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_rps9

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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_rps11

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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_rps12

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aactcagctcttcgaaaagtagctagagttcgttttaactcaggtttacgaagtaacggcatatattcctggaattgtgcacaaattacaagaacatgctgtgttttagttcagaggtgttagagtttaagatttac
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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_rps14

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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_rps18

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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_rps19

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acgttaa

>Chloromonas_clathrata -_tufA

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>Chloromonas_clathrata -_ycf3

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>Chloromonas_clathrata - _ycf4

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Appendix 23 zDOPE scores generated by Chimera v1.13 (Pettersen *et al.*, 2004) for all the Rubisco models. Rows highlighted in yellow are models with the lowest zDOPE scores and used for final Rubisco modelling.

Chlamydomonas augustae

SSU	zDOPE	LSU1	zDOPE	LSU2	zDOPE	LSU3	zDOPE	LSU4	zDOPE
5.1	-0.01	1.1	-1.04	2.1	-1.13	3.1	-1.09	4.1	-1.08
5.2	0.01	1.2	-1.08	2.2	-1.13	3.2	-1.01	4.2	-1.12
5.3	0	1.3	-1.08	2.3	-1.12	3.3	-1.17	4.3	-1.14
5.4	0.07	1.4	-1.10	2.4	-1.11	3.4	-1.09	4.4	-1.10
5.5	0.04	1.5	-1.14	2.5	-1.1	3.5	-1.10	4.5	-1.13
5.6	0.02	1.6	-1.09	2.6	-1.1	3.6	-1.10	4.6	-1.09
5.7	-0.11	1.7	-1.08	2.7	-1.11	3.7	-1.09	4.7	-1.09
5.8	-0.07	1.8	-1.08	2.8	-1.11	3.8	-1.10	4.8	-1.10
5.9	-0.02	1.9	-1.11	2.9	-1.14	3.9	-1.10	4.9	-1.16
5.10	-0.04	1.10	-1.08	2.10	-1.14	3.10	-1.11	4.10	-1.18

Chlamydomonas mutabilis

SSU	zDOPE	LSU1	zDOPE	LSU2	zDOPE	LSU3	zDOPE	LSU4	zDOPE
1.1	-0.31	2.1	-1.22	5.1	-1.23	3.1	-1.16	4.1	-1.17
1.2	-0.41	2.2	-0.12	5.2	-1.18	3.2	-1.17	4.2	-1.14
1.3	-0.50	2.3	-1.16	5.3	-1.15	3.3	-1.22	4.3	-1.24
1.4	-0.37	2.4	-1.23	5.4	-1.19	3.4	-1.16	4.4	-1.16
1.5	-0.30	2.5	-1.21	5.5	-1.19	3.5	-1.18	4.5	-1.17
1.6	-0.36	2.6	-1.19	5.6	-1.16	3.6	-1.22	4.6	-1.18
1.7	-0.36	2.7	-1.16	5.7	-1.2	3.7	-1.18	4.7	-1.15
1.8	-0.35	2.8	-1.17	5.8	-1.22	3.8	-1.16	4.8	-1.16
1.9	-0.34	2.9	-1.16	5.9	-1.18	3.9	-1.21	4.9	-1.18
1.10	-0.33	2.10	-1.17	5.10	-1.19	3.10	-1.14	4.10	-1.22

Chloromonas serbinowii

SSU	zDOPE	LSU1	zDOPE	LSU2	zDOPE	LSU3	zDOPE	LSU4	zDOPE
5.1	0.19	4.1	-0.94	3.1	0.11	1.1	0.21	2.1	0.16
5.2	0.06	4.2	-0.99	3.2	0.07	1.2	0.07	2.2	0
5.3	0.13	4.3	-0.95	3.3	0.08	1.3	0.11	2.3	0.14
5.4	0.02	4.4	-0.97	3.4	0.13	1.4	0.08	2.4	0.2
5.5	0.06	4.5	-0.97	3.5	0.13	1.5	0.01	2.5	0.13
5.6	0.11	4.6	-0.98	3.6	0.08	1.6	0.15	2.6	0.09
5.7	-0.05	4.7	-0.97	3.7	0.11	1.7	0.2	2.7	0.06
5.8	0.11	4.8	-0.97	3.8	0.13	1.8	0	2.8	0.15
5.9	0.07	4.9	-0.94	3.9	0.08	1.9	1.6	2.9	0.15
5.10	0.05	4.10	-0.94	3.10	0.11	1.10	0.16	2.10	0.2

Appendices

Chloromonas clathrata

SSU	zDOPE	LSU1	zDOPE	LSU2	zDOPE	LSU3	zDOPE	LSU4	zDOPE
5.1	-0.06	4.1	-0.92	3.1	0.14	1.1	0.11	2.1	0.14
5.2	0.08	4.2	-0.94	3.2	0.09	1.2	0.14	2.2	0.1
5.3	-0.16	4.3	-0.96	3.3	0.1	1.3	0.11	2.3	0.14
5.4	0	4.4	-0.98	3.4	0.18	1.4	0.02	2.4	0.16
5.5	-0.13	4.5	-0.96	3.5	0.13	1.5	0.1	2.5	0.15
5.6	-0.12	4.6	-0.9	3.6	0.15	1.6	0.22	2.6	0.19
5.7	0	4.7	-0.86	3.7	0.23	1.7	0.17	2.7	0.14
5.8	-0.05	4.8	-0.96	3.8	0.12	1.8	0.23	2.8	0.22
5.9	0	4.9	-0.91	3.9	0.16	1.9	0.18	2.9	0.17
5.10	0.02	4.10	-0.93	3.10	0.14	1.10	0.26	2.10	0.1

Appendices

Appendix 24 List of all the residues at the interface SSU/LSUs. Amino acids in red are those located either in the two α -helices or in the β A- β B loop.

Chlamydomonas augustae

		Interactions SSU with LSU1	Interactions SSU with LSU2	Interactions SSU with LSU3	Interactions SSU with LSU4
Residues LSU 1 to 4 interacting on SSU		Residues interacting on LSU1	Residues interacting with LSU2	Residues interacting on LSU3	No Residues interacting with SSU
W 4		G	G 173	H 147	
P 6		A	L 174	I 149	
V 7		G	S 175	Q 150	
N 8		F	K 177	R 153	
N 9		W	N 178	D 154	
K 10		G	G 180	K 155	
M 11		L	R 181	L 156	
F 12		T	Y 184	N 157	
E 13		S	E 185	K 158	
T 14		R	R 188	Y 159	
F 15		Y	F 205	G 160	
S 16			R 209	R 161	
Y 17			I 213	R 188	
L 18			F 214	G 189	
P 19			A 216	G 190	
L 21			E 217	Y 220	
Q 25			A 218	Q 223	
A 28			Y 220	A 224	
Q 29			K 221	E 225	
Y 32			Q 223	T 226	
W 38			A 224	G 227	
E 43			E 225	E 228	
A 47			V 250	I 229	
K 49			D 253	K 252	
Y 51			L 254	D 253	
V 52			G 255	G 255	
N 54			H 403	V 256	
S 56			P 404	P 257	
R 59			W 405	N 281	
F 60			G 406	G 282	
G 61			N 407	L 283	
S 62				L 284	
S 62				R 344	
V 63				E 346	
V 63				D 390	
S 64				D 391	
C 65				A 412	
C 65				R 415	
L 66				V 416	
L 66				L 418	
Y 67				E 419	
Y 68				A 420	
Y 68				T 422	
D 69				Q 423	
N 70				R 425	

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R	71
R	71
Y	72
Y	72
W	73
T	74
M	75
M	75
K	77
K	77
L	78
L	78
P	79
F	81
G	82
C	83
R	84
D	85
A	86
V	89
R	106
F	110
F	110
D	111
N	112
N	112
Q	113
K	114
Q	115
Q	115
Q	115
V	116
Q	117
Q	117
I	118
M	119
G	120

N	426
E	427
W	445
E	448

Appendices

Chlamydomonas mutabilis

		Interactions SSU with LSU1	Interactions SSU with LSU2	Interactions SSU with LSU3	Interactions SSU with LSU4
Residues LSU 1 to 4 interacting on SSU		Residues interacting on LSU1	Residues interacting on LSU2	Residues interacting on LSU3	No Residues interacting with SSU
M	1	T	G 173	Q 150	
M	2	R	S 175	R 153	
W	4	G	K 177	D 154	
P	6	A	N 178	K 155	
V	7	G	G 180	L 156	
N	8	F	R 181	N 157	
N	9	W	Y 184	K 158	
K	10	G	E 185	Y 159	
M	11	L	R 188	G 160	
E	13	T	F 205	R 161	
T	14	S	V 213	R 188	
F	15	R	F 214	G 189	
S	16	Y	A 216	G 190	
Y	17		E 217	Y 220	
L	18		A 218	Q 223	
P	19		Y 220	A 224	
L	21		K 221	E 225	
Q	25		A 224	T 226	
R	28		E 225	G 227	
Q	29		V 250	E 228	
Y	32		K 252	V 229	
V	34		S 253	K 252	
N	36		L 254	G 255	
G	37		G 255	V 256	
W	38		H 403	P 257	
W	38		P 404	N 281	
I	39		W 405	G 282	
P	40		G 406	L 283	
E	43		N 407	L 284	
K	49			D 346	
Y	51			D 390	
V	52			D 391	
S	56			W 405	
R	59			A 408	
F	60			P 409	
G	61			A 412	
S	62			R 415	
S	62			V 416	
V	63			E 419	
C	65			A 420	
C	65			T 422	
L	66			Q 423	
L	66			R 425	
Y	67			N 426	
Y	68			E 427	
Y	68			G 428	
D	69			W 445	
N	70			S 446	
R	71			P 447	
R	71			E 448	
Y	72			A 451	

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W	73
T	74
M	75
M	75
K	77
L	78
L	78
P	79
F	81
G	82
C	83
R	84
F	110
D	111
N	112
Q	113
Q	113
K	114
Q	115
Q	115
Q	115
V	116
Q	117
I	118
M	119
G	120

Appendices

Chloromonas serbinowii

		Interactions SSU with LSU1	Interactions SSU with LSU2	Interactions SSU with LSU3	Interactions SSU with LSU4
Residues LSU 1 to 4 interacting on SSU		Residues interacting on LSU1	Residues interacting on LSU2	Residues interacting on LSU3	No residues interacting
P	6	K 4	G 174	I 150	
N	8	K 5	L 175	E 153	
N	9	R 6	R 178	R 154	
K	10	W 65	Y 180	E 155	
M	11	R 68	V 184	R 156	
E	13	L 69	Y 185	L 157	
T	14	T 70	L 188	D 158	
F	15	A 71	P 205	K 159	
S	16	M 74	F 213	F 160	
Y	17	Y 75	L 214	G 161	
L	18		V 216	G 187	
P	19		M 217	L 188	
L	21		D 218	K 189	
Q	25		V 220	G 190	
A	28		N 221	L 192	
Y	32		S 224	A 223	
W	38		A 225	S 224	
I	39		E 250	A 225	
E	43		K 253	A 226	
K	49		E 254	T 227	
Y	51		L 255	G 228	
V	52		H 403	E 229	
S	56		P 404	V 230	
A	57		Q 405	A 252	
R	59		G 406	K 253	
F	60		I 407	L 255	
G	61		Q 408	G 256	
S	62			S 257	
S	62			N 281	
V	63			D 282	
V	63			M 283	
S	64			V 284	
C	65			R 344	
C	65			K 366	
L	66			K 367	
L	66			D 390	
Y	67			D 391	
Y	68			T 412	
Y	68			R 415	
D	69			V 416	
N	70			L 418	
N	70			E 419	
R	71			A 420	
R	71			V 422	
Y	72			L 423	
Y	72			R 425	
W	73			N 426	
T	74			E 427	
M	75			G 428	
M	75			S 445	
K	77				

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L	78
L	78
P	79
M	80
F	81
G	82
C	83
R	84
R	106
V	108
F	110
F	110
D	111
D	111
N	112
N	112
Q	113
K	114
Q	115
Q	115
Q	115
V	116
V	116
Q	117
Q	117
I	118
M	119
G	120
F	121



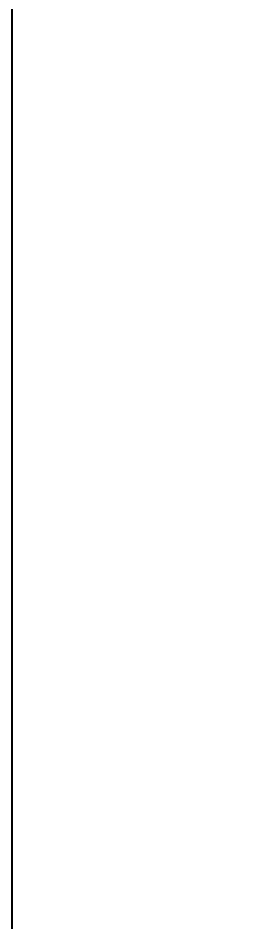
Appendices

Chloromonas clathrata

		Interactions SSU with LSU1		Interactions SSU with LSU2		Interactions SSU with LSU3		Interactions SSU with LSU4
Residues LSU 1 to 4 interacting on SSU		Residues interacting on LSU1		Residues interacting on LSU2		Residues interacting on LSU3		No residues interacting
W	4	K	5	L	173	I	150	
N	9	R	6	L	175	E	153	
K	10	Y	7	G	177	R	154	
M	11	W	65	R	178	E	155	
F	12	R	68	Y	180	R	156	
E	13	L	69	G	181	L	157	
T	14	T	70	R	182	D	158	
F	15	A	71	V	184	K	159	
S	16	M	74	Y	185	F	160	
Y	17	Y	75	L	188	G	161	
L	18			P	205	L	188	
P	19			F	213	K	189	
L	21			L	214	G	190	
Q	25			V	216	A	223	
S	27			M	217	S	224	
A	28			S	224	A	225	
Q	29			A	225	A	226	
K	31			E	250	T	227	
Y	32			K	253	G	228	
I	39			S	254	E	229	
Y	51			L	255	V	230	
V	52			H	403	A	252	
E	55			P	404	K	253	
S	56			Q	405	L	255	
R	59			G	406	G	256	
F	60			I	407	S	257	
G	61			Q	408	N	281	
G	61					D	282	
S	62					M	283	
S	62					I	284	
V	63					K	366	
V	63					D	390	
S	64					T	412	
C	65					R	415	
C	65					V	416	
L	66					E	419	
L	66					A	420	
Y	67					V	422	
Y	67					L	423	
Y	68					R	425	
Y	68					N	426	
D	69					E	427	
N	70					G	428	
N	70							
R	71							
R	71							
Y	72							
Y	72							
W	73							
T	74							

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G	82
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F	110
F	110
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D	111
N	112
N	112
Q	113
K	114
K	114
Q	115
Q	115
Q	115
V	116
V	116
Q	117
Q	117
I	118
M	119
G	120
F	121



Appendix 25 Presence/Absence of the 88 essential genes tested with BLAST (Kent, 2002) on the 5 new sequenced strains.

Gene ID	Gene function	<i>Chlamydomonas augustae</i> CCM + pyr ⁺	<i>Chlamydomonas nutallii</i> CCM + pyr ⁺	<i>Chlamydomonas serbinovii</i> CCM + pyr ⁻	<i>Chlamydomonas rosae</i> CCM + pyr ⁻	<i>Chlamydomonas clathrata</i> CCM + pyr ⁻
		28/88	64/88	31/88	57/88	51/88
Cre01-g014350.t1.2	PRX5 - Peroxiredoxin, type II					
Cre01-g02150.t1.1						
Cre01-g030900.t1.1	6.2.1.26 - o-succinylbenzoate-- CoA ligase / OSB-CoA synthetase					
Cre01-g045902.t1.1						
Cre01-g051500.t1.2	Uncharacterized thylakoid luminal polypeptide					
Cre01-g054850.t1.2						
Cre02-g073850.t1.2						
Cre02-g078507.t1.2	PF13326 - Photosystem II P6827 (PSII_P6827)					
Cre02-g097800.t1.1						
Cre02-g105650.t1.2						
Cre02-g111550.t1.1	Kinase: From pooled screens					
Cre02-g120100	RbcS1					
Cre02-g120150	RbcS2					
Cre02-g120250.t1.1	STT7 - found in pyrenoid proteome and interacts with CAH3 - we would be interested in further characterizing this interaction					
Cre02-g143450.t1.2	PTHR36738:SF1 -expressed protein					
Cre03-g146167.t1.1	TEF10a - predicted protein					
Cre03-g151650.t1.1	SMM					
Cre03-g156600.t1.2	GluTRBP - Glutaryl-tRNA reductase binding protein					
Cre03-g162800.t1.2						
Cre03-g179800.t1.2	LCI 24					
Cre03-g183850.t1.2	HDX6 - Ferredoxin					
Cre03-g185550.t1.2						
Cre03-g188700.t1.2						

Cre10.g439350.t1.2	PTHR17130.SF24 - GAN						
Cre10.g440000.t1.1							
Cre10.g440050.t1.2	CSP41 - in Lemaire proteome, binds Rubisco, has two motifs - could fit well with Moritz' story						
Cre10.g444700.t1.1	SBE3 - Starch branching enzyme						
Cre10.g452800.t1.2	LCI B						
Cre11.g467712.t1.1	SAGA I						
Cre12.g484200.t1.2	GGPS1						
Cre12.g485050.t1.2							
Cre12.g494850.t1.2	ADK3 - Adenylate kinase 3						
Cre12.g497300.t2.1							
Cre12.g507300.t1.2							
Cre12.g509050.t1.1	PSBP3						
Cre12.g519300.t1.2	TEF9 - predicted protein						
Cre12.g524300.t1.2							
Cre12.g524500.t1.2							
Cre12.g531050.t1.1							
Cre12.g560950.t1.2	PSAG						
Cre13.g574000.t1.1	Putative voltage-gated bicarbonate transporter from screens						
Cre13.g577100.t1.2	ACP2 - Aeyl carrier protein						
Cre13.g578650.t1.1							
Cre13.g581850.t1.2	Kinase. Identified in Leif's screen and Frieder pooled screen						
Cre14.g616600.t1.2	FZL, mutant has mislocalized pyrenoid, being characterized by Moritz						
Cre14.g626700.t1.2	Fd/FDX1 - Ferredoxin						
Cre16.g651050.t1.2	CYC6 - cytochrome c6						
Cre16.g652800.t1.2							
Cre16.g658400.t1.2	FDX2 - Ferredoxine						
Cre16.g659050.t1.1							
Cre16.g662150.t1.2	CCB1/CPLD5 l cytochrome b6f complex assembly						

	CYN38 - Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase, cyclophilin-type						
	LCI 34						
	CCPI- binds weakly to Rubisco, found in Zhan/Lemaire proteome						
	RCA1 - Rubisco activase 1						
	SAGA like 2						
	ATPc - ATP synthase gamma chain, chloroplastic						
	REMP1						
	LCI C						
	PSAH - Subunit H of photosystem I						
	PSBP4 - Lumenal PsbP-like						
	PSBQ - Oxygen evolving enhancer protein 3						
	LCI 9 - Low Co2 inducible						
	SAGA like 1						
	Candidate Na+/HCO3- transporter from screens						
	CAH3 - Carbonic anhydrase						
	Kinase? Rubisco physical interactor RBMP2						
	EPPYCI /LCI 5						
	BST1						
	LCI 11						
	STA2 - Starch synthase, chloroplastic/amyloplastic						
	PSAK - Photosystem I reaction center subunit psak						
	LHLA - High intensity light-inducible lhc-like gene						
	BST4						
	-bst1						

Appendix 26 Paper accepted in New Phytologist

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Rubisco and carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM) co-evolution across Chlorophyte and Streptophyte green algae

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Summary

- Green algae expressing a carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM) are usually associated with a Rubisco-containing micro-compartment, the pyrenoid. A link between the small subunit (SSU) of Rubisco and pyrenoid formation in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* has previously suggested that specific *RbcS* residues could explain pyrenoid occurrence in green algae.
- A phylogeny of *RbcS* was used to compare the protein sequence and CCM distribution across the green algae and positive selection in *RbcS* was estimated. For six streptophyte algae, Rubisco catalytic properties, affinity for CO₂ uptake ($K_{0.5}$), carbon isotope discrimination ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and pyrenoid morphology were compared.
- The length of the $\beta\text{A}-\beta\text{B}$ loop in *RbcS* provided a phylogenetic marker discriminating chlorophyte from streptophyte green algae. Rubisco kinetic properties in streptophyte algae have responded to the extent of inducible CCM activity, as indicated by changes in inorganic carbon uptake affinity, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and pyrenoid ultrastructure between high and low CO₂ conditions for growth.
- We conclude that the Rubisco catalytic properties found in streptophyte algae have co-evolved and reflect the strength of any CCM or degree of pyrenoid leakiness, and limitations to inorganic carbon in the aquatic habitat, whereas Rubisco in extant land plants reflects more recent selective pressures associated with improved diffusive supply the terrestrial environment.

Key words: carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM), green algae, photosynthesis, pyrenoid, Rubisco, streptophyte algae,

Introduction

Photoautotrophic organisms globally fix $111\text{--}117 \times 10^{15}$ grams of carbon per year and around half of this global net primary production is aquatic (Behrenfeld *et al.*, 2001; Field *et al.*, 1998), with green algae a major contributor to this global carbon fixation. Green algae are classified into two major groups: chlorophytes and streptophytes, the latter demonstrating a wide range of ultrastructural and developmental traits closely related to land plants. Despite the existence of terrestrial green algae (Warren *et al.*, 2019), both groups remain subject to key limitations in the aquatic milieu (low CO_2 diffusion and availability, light limitation; Borges & Frankignoulle, 2002; Yamano *et al.*, 2015).

Green algal inter-relationships have been resolved through numerous molecular phylogenies, including the chloroplast gene (*rbcL*) encoding the large subunit (LSU) of the primary carboxylase Rubisco (ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase). An early split after the primary endosymbiosis saw the diversification of the hypothetical ancestral flagellate into two main lineages (Leliaert *et al.*, 2011; 2012). First, the chlorophytes, which diversified early as prasinophytes in marine waters, which then gave rise to the core chlorophytes (chlorophytes without prasinophytes, Fig. S1, Supporting Information) in fresh or marine waters. Second, the streptophyte algae, which diversified in fresh water and some subaerial/terrestrial habitats (Harholt *et al.*, 2016). The split between chlorophyte and streptophyte probably occurred during the Neoproterozoic (between 1,000 and 541 million years ago; Becker, 2013; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). Extant photosynthetic chlorophyte and streptophyte algae (as well as non-algal streptophytes, i.e. land plants) have a form 1B Rubisco. Selection pressures on the Rubisco catalytic properties are driven by the availability and diffusive supply of inorganic carbon, the $\text{CO}_2\text{:O}_2$ ratio and the development of any carbon concentrating mechanism (CCM) which improves the operating efficiency of Rubisco in many aquatic photosynthetic microorganisms (Tortell, 2000; Young *et al.*, 2012; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013; Griffiths *et al.*, 2017; Rickaby & Hubbard, 2019). The origins of the algal CCM could be related to equimolar $\text{CO}_2\text{:O}_2$ concentrations in surface waters around 500 million years ago (Griffiths *et al.*, 2017).

The challenge for inorganic carbon delivery within aquatic environments is that bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) or carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) are often much more prevalent, and under current conditions, the concentration of CO_2 is often $\sim 2,000$ times lower in water than in air, and diffusion is 8,000 times slower (Raven *et al.*, 1985; Falkowski & Raven, 2007; Young *et al.*, 2012). A CCM is typically

associated with active transport of bicarbonate across membranes, and catalytic conversion to CO₂ within a chloroplast microcompartment, the pyrenoid (Meyer *et al.*, 2017). Although the presence of a pyrenoid is a robust marker of the presence of a CCM, not all the eukaryotic algae with a CCM have a pyrenoid (Morita *et al.*, 1999; Raven *et al.*, 2005).

The CCM has been particularly well-defined in the model unicellular chlorophyte *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, where the pyrenoid is present with a clearly defined starch sheath, and the associated inner Rubisco matrix transversed by knotted thylakoid tubules, thought to be involved in the delivery of CO₂ within the matrix (Meyer & Griffiths, 2013; Engel *et al.*, 2015; Mackinder *et al.*, 2017; Meyer *et al.*, 2017; Mukherjee *et al.*, 2019). The CCM is inducible following transfer from elevated to ambient CO₂, and a key linker protein (EPYC1) has been associated with the recruitment of Rubisco to the pyrenoid (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016; Freeman-Rosensweig *et al.*, 2017). This recruitment ultimately involves interactions with the Rubisco Small Subunit (SSU) (Wunder *et al.*, 2018; Atkinson *et al.*, 2019), presumably at the level of surface exposed α -helices (Meyer *et al.*, 2012). However, there has been little systematic analysis of the extent to which some form of carbon accumulation mechanism occurs across this chlorophyte clade, or comparative physiological and molecular studies on CCM characteristics or Rubisco kinetic properties, and whether these traits are captured across chlorophyte, prasinophyte and streptophyte algal lineages in *RbcS*.

Chlamydomonas reinhardtii has also been used as a model organism to explore the interactions between Rubisco LSU, SSU and catalytic properties. The eight identical 55-kDa LSUs assemble as four dimers, while two sets of four 15-kDa SSUs, top and tail the Rubisco holoenzyme. A central 'solvent channel' runs through Rubisco and the width of its aperture is dependent on the length of the β A- β B loop in each set of four SSUs capping the LSU octamer (Spreitzer, 2003) and interacting residues between LSUs and SSUs affect Rubisco operating efficiency and catalytic properties (Spreitzer *et al.*, 2005). Natural variation in Rubisco catalytic properties exists among photosynthetic organisms (Jordan & Ogren, 1981), however, a shift in the catalytic parameters towards higher turnover rate per active site (k_{cat}) and higher affinity for CO₂ (K_c) has been observed from cyanobacteria, chlorophyte to land plants (reviewed in Badger *et al.*, 1998; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013). However, it has also been suggested that selective pressures on the Rubisco kinetic parameters V_c and K_c could have been relaxed due to the saturating CO₂ environment

provided by a CCM over evolutionary time (Tortell, 2000; Young *et al.*, 2012; Meyer & Griffiths, 2013).

The overall aim of the presents study was to address the possible interactions between Rubisco SSU structure and phylogeny, and occurrence of any reported CCM or pyrenoid across the green algae. Additionally, we set out to define key Rubisco catalytic properties for a range of streptophyte algae representing the main streptophyte lineages (Fig. S1), as compared to *C. reinhardtii*. The few Rubisco kinetic measurements available for green algae were performed on chlorophytes (*Coccomyxa* sp., Palmqvist *et al.*, 1995; *Scenedesmus obliquus*, Jordan & Ogren, 1981, Badger *et al.*, 1998), not streptophyte algae. Surprisingly, there is yet no streptophyte model alga, despite the previous interest in using species with giant cells to characterise carbon uptake mechanisms (Lucas & Berry, 1985) or the recently published genome of *Chara braunii* (Nishiyama *et al.*, 2018).

Specifically, this study sought to (i) develop a phylogeny for *RbcS* sequences in green algae as compared to consensus phylogenies (e.g. Leliart *et al.*, 2012; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019), and compare the distribution of pyrenoid and CCM across the algal clades; (ii) to identify whether any selection pressure on residues within the SSU were associated with the broader phylogeny or CCM activity and, (iii) to determine whether the catalytic properties of Rubisco across contrasting streptophyte algal groups reflected the overall phylogeny or specific activity of a CCM at the whole organism level. Our results reveal that a change in Rubisco SSU secondary structure (namely the β A- β B loop) is a distinctive trait of the division between core chlorophytes and streptophyte algae. We also demonstrate that Rubisco catalytic properties have co-evolved in association with the extent of CCM activity in streptophytes. Finally, this study provides additional insights for selection pressures driving the evolution of green algae and photosynthetic processes, particularly for Rubisco during the transition to terrestrial plant life forms.

Materials and Methods

Collection of protein sequences, phylogenetic analysis, β A- β B loop length and pyrenoid presence/absence mapping

2,674 protein *RbcS* sequences of green algae were kindly provided by «The 1000 plants project» (1KP; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019; Carpenter *et al.*, 2019). All the protein sequences were

manually and individually screened. Sequences showing cross-contamination (Carpenter *et al.*, 2019), or which were too short or incomplete, were removed. The dataset did now allow to unambiguously identify *RbcS* isoforms. Although it is generally taken that all photosynthetic members of the Viridiplantae have multiple copies of the *RbcS* gene, conservatively only one sequence was used in the analysis for each species, except when the data was sourced from independently sequenced genomes (e.g. for *Asteromonas*). A total of 187 protein sequences belonging to 113 species (31 streptophyte algae, 10 prasinophytes, 72 chlorophytes) were then aligned with Clustal Omega (Sievers *et al.*, 2011). ProTest v2.4 (Abascal *et al.*, 2005) was used to identify the best model of protein evolution. Bayesian phylogenetic analyses were performed using BEAST v2.3.1 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014) with a LG model of protein evolution (Le & Gascuel, 2008), a gamma distribution model with four categories, a relaxed molecular clock and finally with a Yule model of speciation. Three independent chains were run, each of length 8×10^7 steps, parameters values and trees were sampled every 10×10^2 steps. Chain convergences were checked using Tracer v1.6 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007). Posterior parameters were summarized with Tree Annotator v1.8.2 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007) using a maximum clade credibility tree (MCC) and a posterior limit of 0.5. Figtree v1.4.2 (Rambaut, 2007) was used for tree visualizations. The length of the β A- β B loop was determined after the analysis of the protein sequences, with the number of residues in the loop (Spreitzer, 2003) mapped on to the phylogeny of *RbcS*. Finally, the same phylogeny was used to map the pyrenoid presence/absence. The scoring for pyrenoid presence/absence was based on the available literature (Table S1).

Likelihood ratio test for positive selection

To test the importance of two SSU α -helices for pyrenoid formation in *C. reinhardtii* (Meyer *et al.*, 2012), the Codon-based package (codeml) implemented in PAML v4.9 (Yang, 2007) was used to detect residues under positive selection across the green algae lineage. In addition, the presence of a CCM is not universal across the green algae so the branch model also implemented in PAML was used to detect branches under positive selection. All the analyses were performed using “user tree” mode. The DNA phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using BEAST v2.3.1 with 135 cDNA *RbcS* sequences of green algae from the 1KP, with a GTR model of protein evolution (Tavaré, 1986) and the same gamma distribution, molecular clock and model of speciation previously used. Three independent chains were run, each of length 5×10^7 steps, parameters values and trees were sampled every 10×10^2 steps. Chain convergences, posterior parameters and tree visualization were

analysed with the same method explained above. Several models of codon evolution that allow for variations in ω (dN/dS) among codons were tested (Site model) and evaluated using Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRTs) (Neyman & Pearson, 1928) as described in Kapralov & Filatov (2007). Branch models were used to test for positive selection across branches. The null model allowed for variations in ω among branches ($0 < dN/dS < 1$ and $dN/dS = 1$ for both foreground and background branches) and also included two additional classes of codons with fixed $dN/dS = 1$ on foreground branches but restricted as $0 < dN/dS < 1$ and $dN/dS = 1$ for background branches. The alternative model allowed $0 < dN/dS < 1$ and $dN/dS = 1$ for both foreground and background branches but also included two additional classes of codons under positive selection with $dN/dS > 1$ on foreground branches with restriction as $0 < dN/dS < 1$ and $dN/dS = 1$ on background branches. Branches leading to species without pyrenoid were labelled as foreground branches (allows positive selection) and the rest of the branches were considered as background branches (with no positive selection). The level of significance was tested as described above.

Streptophyte algae culturing, Rubisco purification and Rubisco catalytic properties

Six streptophyte algae (Table S2-3; Fig. S1) were ordered from the Culture Collection of Algae at Göttingen. These consisted of: *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* (Chlorokybophyceae), *Klebsormidium subtile* (Klebsormidiophyceae), *Cosmarium subtumidum*, *Onychonema laeve*, *Spirogyra* sp. (Zygnematophyceae) and *Coleochaete scutata* (Coleochaetophyceae). The wild type *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (strain CC-4533, Li *et al.*, 2016) was used as control to test protocols since the Rubisco catalytic properties are well characterised (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Genkov & Spreitzer, 2009). Strains were cultured in an incubator shaker (Innova 42, New Brunswick Scientific) under constant agitation (130 RPM) in the recommended medium (Table S2), in 2L conical flasks, under constant light at 20°C and bubbled with ambient air. Due to the low concentration of Rubisco in algae (Losh *et al.*, 2013; Valegård *et al.*, 2018) a minimum of 30g wet paste per sample was harvested in order to have enough material for the Rubisco extraction and purification.

Algal cells were broken using an Emulsiflex-C5 high pressure homogenizer (Avestin Inc., Ottawa, Canada) kindly loaned by Biopharma Group (Winchester, UK). Cell pastes were re-suspended in *ca.* 200 mL of extraction buffer containing 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 50 mM Bicine, 10 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM ϵ -aminocaproic acid, 1 mM benzamidine, 0.1 M phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride,

and 200 μL of protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, UK). Total soluble proteins were extracted via centrifugation at 22,000 g for 12 minutes (min) at 4°C. After this initial centrifugation step, PEG 4000 (60% w/v) and 1 M MgCl_2 were added to the supernatant and the rest of the purification carried out as described previously (Orr & Carmo-Silva, 2018). Peak fractions containing Rubisco (based on CABP binding [Sharwood *et al.*, 2016]) were concentrated using Amicon Ultracel-15 concentrators (100 kDa MWCO, Merck-Millipore, UK). Aliquots were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

Rubisco activity for the six streptophyte algae was determined by incorporation of H^{14}CO_3 into acid-stable products at 25°C as described in Prins *et al.* (2016) with some modifications. Rubisco activity was measured at a higher temperature (25°C) than for growth in the natural environment, to allow comparison with the expression of standard Rubisco kinetic properties (Jordan & Ogren, 1984). Purified Rubisco was diluted using desalting buffer (Orr & Carmo-Silva, 2018) and then desalted using a G-25 MidiTrap column (GE Healthcare, UK). Samples were allowed to activate on ice for 45 mins prior to assaying. Carboxylation activity was measured at nine different concentrations of CO_2 (8, 16, 24, 36, 68, 100, 180, 280 and 400 μM) and with O_2 concentrations of 0 and 21% (250 μM). In order to ensure that the activity measured was entirely due to Rubisco, three controls were performed: CO_2 fixation (acid-stable ^{14}C) was measured in reaction solutions lacking RuBP or NaHCO_3 , and following total inhibition of Rubisco by prior treatment with an excess of the tight-binding inhibitor 2-carboxyarabinitol-1,5-bisphosphate (CABP). Radioactive content of ^{14}C -labelled compounds was measured in 0.4 ml aqueous solutions to which were added 3.6 ml Gold Star Quanta Scintillation cocktail (Meridian Biotechnologies, UK), in a Tri-Carb 2250 CA Liquid Scintillation Analyser (Perkin-Elmer, USA). Turnover number (k_{cat} : mol product mol active site $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$) was calculated from the corresponding V_{max} value (V_c : μmol acid-stable ^{14}C mg Rubisco $^{-1}$ min $^{-1}$).

Rubisco quantification was via [^{14}C]CABP binding assay as described Sharwood *et al.* (2016). Rubisco was incubated for 25 min after adding [^{14}C]CABP. Each quantification was performed in duplicate. Radioactive content of ^{14}C -labelled compounds was measured using scintillation counting as described above.

Photosynthetic affinity for inorganic carbon

Apparent affinity for inorganic carbon (Ci) was determined by oxygen evolution (Badger *et al.*, 1980) and as described in Mitchell *et al.* (2014). Five extra concentrations were added in cultures grown in high CO₂ condition in order to reach maximum rate of oxygen evolution (2500, 3000, 4000, 4500 and 5000 µM). Chlorophyll *a* and *b* concentrations were measured for normalization of oxygen evolution measurements as described in Mitchell *et al.* (2014).

Carbon isotope analysis

Algae cultures were grown under low and high CO₂ conditions and were harvested by centrifugation at 3,234 *g* for 5 minutes at 20°C (Eppendorf, Centrifuge 5804 R), resuspended in 0.1M HCl to remove inorganic carbon and washed several times with deionized water. Samples were dried in a freeze drier overnight and weighed (0.5 mg) in triplicate into 3mm x 5mm tin capsules (Experimental Microanalysis Ltd., Okehampton, UK). The results were reported with reference to the international standard VPDB with a precision better than +/- 0.08 per mil for ¹²C/¹³C. All the analyses were performed at the Godwin Laboratory for Paleoclimate Research at the University of Cambridge.

Pyrenoid morphologies

Pyrenoid morphologies were examined using blockface imaging by SEM. Sample preparation and imaging were undertaken at the Cambridge Advanced Imaging Centre (CAIC). Cells were cultured as explained above in liquid Tris-phosphate medium and bubbled under ambient air supply (0.04% CO₂). After centrifugation, they were then fixed and embedded as described in Chan (2018). Resin blocks were mounted on aluminium SEM stubs and sputter-coated with 35 nm gold. Blockfaces were obtained with an ultramicrotome (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) and coated with 30 nm carbon. Finally, blockfaces were imaged using a FEI Verios 460 scanning electron microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific), running at 4 keV accelerating voltage and 0.2 nA probe current. Images were obtained using the Through-lens detector in immersion and backscatter mode. Automated image acquisition was set up using FEI MAPS software using a pixel resolution of 1536 x 1024, a dwell time of 3 µs, a horizontal field width of 15.9 µm/tile (magnification 8000x), an x-y tile overlap of 15%/20% and the MAPS default stitching profile.

Results

The length of the βA-βB loop drives the phylogeny of *RbcS*

A protein phylogeny of *RbcS* was constructed to identify any residues specific to species with a pyrenoid as a determinant of CCM activity. Despite the low number of variable sites, attributable to the brevity of the sequence, *RbcS* recapitulated at the phylum level the green lineage phylogeny (e.g. Leliart *et al.*, 2012; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019; the present study: Fig. S2). However, the present study found that species without a pyrenoid were dispersed throughout the whole *RbcS* phylogeny. Therefore, specific residues in the SSU α -helices (Meyer *et al.*, 2012) were not sufficient to explain the pyrenoid occurrence across the entire phylum (Fig. 1). A closer examination of the solvent-exposed residues (available for possible interactions with the Rubisco linker EPYC1) of the amino acids and their electrostatic properties in the two α -helices, hypothesised to be the key elements for the formation of a pyrenoid (Meyer *et al.*, 2012; Mackinder *et al.*, 2016), varied in their distribution (Fig. S3). For example, the two pyrenoid-less species *Spermatozopsis similis* and *Chloromonas oogama* exhibited α -helices identical to *C. reinhardtii* (pyrenoid-positive) (Fig. S3). The absence of any consistent pattern which could differentiate pyrenoid-less from pyrenoid-positive species suggests that the residues in the two α -helices are not sufficient to singlehandedly explain pyrenoid occurrence in green algae, as we had hypothesized.

However, the *RbcS* phylogeny did systematically differentiate streptophyte algae and core chlorophytes, which were clustered separately into two sister clades (Fig. 1). Prasinophytes clustered with the core chlorophytes, except *Picocystis salinarum*. The phylogenetic differentiation in *RbcS* clearly coincided with differences in the β A- β B loop length. Core chlorophytes and prasinophytes consistently showed a β A- β B loop length of 25 or more residues, whereas the vast majority of streptophyte algae exhibited a β A- β B loop length of less than 23 residues with 52 of the 58 sequences having a β A- β B loop 21 residues long. The short loop of *P. salinarum* (21 residues) matches that of *Picocystis* sp. (draft genome; Junkins *et al.* 2019). The nested position within streptophyte algae could be due to this singular property, although the overall short length of *RbcS* and low bootstrap values at internal branches were likely additional factors. The difference in loop length between core chlorophytes and streptophyte algae revealed different Rubisco structures between these two groups. With a wider central solvent channel due to the shorter β A- β B loop, streptophyte algae have a Rubisco structure more similar to that in land plants as embryophytes (Spreitzer, 2003).

***RbcS* is not under positive selection**

As an additional test for residues under positive selection in *RbcS*, in association with a CCM or at the level of the SSU α -helices, 135 DNA sequences from green algae were used (Fig. S4). One Likelihood Ratio Test (LRT) for dN/dS heterogeneity across codons (M0-M3) was successfully performed and was significant, indicating expected heterogeneity in selective pressure across *RbcS* molecules ($2\Delta\ln L = 2312.99$, $P\text{-value} < 0.0001$, $df=8$) (Table 1). Two LRTs were also performed to test for the presence of codons under positive selection (M7-M8 and M8-M8a) and both comparisons rejected models with positive selection (Table 1). The model M7 (which allows for 10 site classes, each with a $\omega > 1$) was selected in favour of the model M8 (11 sites classes with one of which allows for $\omega > 1$) and was consequently not significant ($2\Delta\ln L = -0.00049$, $P\text{-value} = 0.5$, $df=2$). The more stringent comparison between the model M8a (which is similar to M7 but which allows for an extra class of codons with dN/dS=1) and M8 was also not significant ($2\Delta\ln L = -0.07013$, $P\text{-value} = 0.5$, $df=1$) confirming the absence of codons under positive selection in *RbcS*. The absence of residues under positive selection suggests that the appearance of new residues would not confer selective advantages in *RbcS*, and particularly at the level of the α -helices (consistent with observations arising from Fig. 1 and Fig. S3, described above).

Branches under positive selection were successfully tested with the branch-model implemented in PAML. The LRT for heterogeneity across branches (H0-H1) was significant ($2\Delta\ln L = 9.358$, $P\text{-value} = 0.0011$, $df=1$) (Table 2). However, background and foreground omega showed values less than 1, implying positive selection was absent among foreground branches ($\omega_a = 0.082$; $\omega_b = 0.16 < 1$). These results suggest that the presence of variation in ω across branches in *RbcS*, but not significant enough to show positive selection, or any correlation with pyrenoid occurrence.

Streptophyte algae share Rubisco catalytic properties with both chlorophytes and embryophytes

A more detailed investigation of Rubisco catalytic properties was undertaken in order to explore whether any evolutionary progression towards land plant characteristics was evident in streptophyte algae. The multiple alignment of *RbcS* in six representative streptophyte algae selected for this component of the study confirmed the deletion of five amino-acids in this group

compared to *C. reinhardtii* (Fig. 2; Spreitzer, 2003). This shortens the loop between the first and the second β -sheets, reducing the constriction at the entry of the holoenzyme's solvent channel. Rubisco catalytic properties at 25°C for the six green algae are shown in Table 3, including *C. reinhardtii* as a control. In *C. reinhardtii*, Rubisco catalytic properties varied slightly from previous measurements (Satagopan & Spreitzer, 2008; Jordan & Ogren, 1981) but remained in the same range. Michaelis-Menten constant for carboxylation (K_c) showed similar values (39.6 and 34 μM) whereas the Rubisco turnover rate (k_{cat}) was somewhat higher in this study compared to the value found in Satagopan & Spreitzer (2008). The streptophyte algae did not show a clear systematic shift from chlorophyte towards land plant catalytic properties despite similar Rubisco SSU structural changes. Of the five streptophyte algae, only *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* showed a higher affinity for CO_2 (lower K_c values), closer to land plant values (e.g. *Arabidopsis thaliana*; 10.7 μM) with K_c of 18.7 and 27.3 μM respectively (Table 3). *Cosmarium subtumidum*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Coleochaete scutata* had a relative low affinity for CO_2 with K_c values in the range of the core chlorophytes or slightly higher (45.3, 49.1 and 43.1 μM respectively).

The catalytic turnover rate (k_{cat}) showed a trend towards lower values. *Onychonema laeve* and *Cosmarium subtumidum*, both members of the Zygnematophyceae, had similar k_{cat} values (2.39 and 2.51 s^{-1} respectively). *Spirogyra* sp. appeared to be an exception with a high k_{cat} value compared to the other streptophyte algae (4.90 s^{-1}), similar to the land plant *A. thaliana* (4.1 s^{-1} , Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). *Coleochaete scutata* showed the lowest k_{cat} of all the streptophyte algae (1.67 s^{-1}). Higher K_c is usually correlated to high k_{cat} and lower specificity factor (Badger, 1987; von Caemmerer & Quick, 2000; Tcherkez *et al.*, 2006; Savir *et al.*, 2010; Tcherkez, 2013). *Klebsormidium subtile* presented the highest value for carboxylation catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_c^{air}) (0.14 $\text{s}^{-1} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$), and whilst this was the highest streptophyte algae value determined, remains well below that of land plants like *A. thaliana* (Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). The remaining streptophyte algae displayed lower efficiency, with *Coleochaete scutata* showing the lowest efficiency (0.032 $\text{s}^{-1} \mu\text{M}^{-1}$).

Streptophyte algae have a CCM, albeit leaky in some species

Oxygen evolution measurements, pyrenoid imaging and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ were used to characterise CCM activity in the different streptophyte algae and to investigate whether CCM activity was associated

with Rubisco catalytic properties. Oxygen evolution was used to determine the whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon and therefore the extent of any inducible carbon concentrating mechanism. The photosynthetic $K_{0.5}$ (Ci) value (Table 4) of the wild-type *C. reinhardtii* under low CO_2 showed a strong affinity for Ci (54 μM Ci), similar to previous values in the literature (Mitchell *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014). *Klebsormidium subtile*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Coleochaete scutata* showed a whole cell affinity for Ci similar to *C. reinhardtii* with $K_{0.5}$ ranging from 45 to 53 μM Ci, consistent with a fully functional CCM, whereas *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*, *Cosmarium subtumidum* and *Onychonema laeve* exhibited a c.20% lower apparent affinity for CO_2 compared to the other species ($K_{0.5}$ 62, 64 and 62 μM Ci respectively), but still suggestive of CCM activity. Photosynthetic $K_{0.5}$ (Ci) values of all the species grown under high CO_2 confirmed the absence of CCM activity under such conditions (Table S4), and thereby the inducible character of the CCM in all species under examination.

Stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) for organic matter was also used as a second proxy for CCM activity in the different species (Table 4). *Coleochaete scutata*, *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Cosmarium subtumidum* appeared to be isotopically enriched at -15.8 to -18.8‰ (Table 4), values close to *C. reinhardtii* (-18.9‰) and close to the upper range typically seen in C_4 terrestrial plants and consistent with a fully-functioning CCM (Raven *et al.*, 1982). On the other hand, *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* were somewhat isotopically depleted compared to the other species, with values intermediate between typical C_3 and C_4 plants ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of -21.1 and -21.3‰ respectively; O’Leary, 1988) and consistent with a CCM phenotype prone to leakiness (retro-diffusion of CO_2 : Meyer *et al.*, 2008) or limited carbon accumulation capacity.

Taken together, these observations reveal that Rubisco catalytic properties correlate to some extent with the strength of CCM activity. Similarly to *C. reinhardtii*, the three streptophytes algae *Cosmarium subtumidum*, *Spirogyra* sp. and *Coleochaete scutata* revealed a fully functioning CCM (low whole-cell affinity, $K_{0.5}$, and low carbon isotope discrimination) but lower Rubisco catalytic affinity for inorganic carbon (high K_c values), whereas *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* have a less effective CCM but higher affinity for inorganic carbon in terms of Rubisco catalytic properties (low K_c values). Therefore, in the presence of a less-effective CCM, Rubisco catalytic properties for *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* show a systematic shift towards values more typically associated with land plants.

Finally, electronic microscopy was used to diagnose the presence/absence of a pyrenoid in the algal material used in the present study, as an additional diagnostic for an active biophysical CCM. The presence of a pyrenoid was confirmed for all the species except for *Coleochaete scutata* for which tissue embedding was unsuccessful. Presence and morphology of a pyrenoid in that species had been previously published (McKay *et al.*, 1991). CCM activities were supported by the presence of a pyrenoid in all species (Fig. 3). *Cosmarium subtumidum* (Fig. 3b), *Onychonema laeve* (Fig. 3d), *Coleochaete scutata* (Fig. 3f) and *Spirogyra* sp. (Fig. 3e) exhibited pyrenoid morphologies similar to *C. reinhardtii* (Fig. 3g) with a spheroidal electron dense matrix traversed by multiple tubules, and a single layered peripheral starch sheath. There were, however, differences in the fine structure (starch sheath thickness and continuity, density of thylakoid tubules network) that perhaps provide clues to the variability in $K_{0.5}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements. *Klebsormidium subtile* lacked a peripheral starch sheath (Fig. 3a), although a starch sheath may occur in *Klebsormidium* dependent on growth stage or light intensity (M. Melkonian, unpublished observations). *Chlorokybus atmophyticus* had multiple layers of short starch plates surrounding the matrix (Fig. 3c). The network of cross-pyrenoidal tubules was regular and dense in *Cosmarium* and *Chlorokybus* (Figs 3 b, c).

Overall, the results show that Rubisco catalytic properties are CCM dependent. However, at this stage, it remains difficult to differentiate limitations in carbon uptake versus leakiness of CO_2 as the selective pressure operating on Rubisco, and more detailed physiological experiments are warranted to fully characterize these contrasting processes.

Discussion

Rubisco SSU residues do not systematically equate to a CCM.

There was no immediately apparent correlation between SSU amino-acid sequence and pyrenoid occurrence/inferred CCM activity across the newly-created phylogeny of *RbcS* for green algae. Our expectation was based on (i) the observations that the *RbcS* α -helices are important for pyrenoid formation in *C. reinhardtii* (Meyer *et al.*, 2012), as well as (ii) recent *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments showing that the SSU is needed to interact with the *Chlamydomonas* Rubisco linker EPYC1 (Wunder *et al.*, 2018; Atkinson *et al.*, 2019). Whether streptophyte pyrenoids assemble with an EPYC1 analogue is currently unknown. Based on the primary sequence alone, there are no EPYC1 homologues outside the Chlamydomonadales, so it would seem that other Rubisco

aggregation mechanisms may occur in more distantly related lineages, perhaps through interactions with other elements of the SSU and/or the LSU, which is the *modus operandi* in some cyanobacterial carboxysomes (Long *et al.*, 2011; Oltrogge *et al.*, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2019). It would be interesting to determine whether the widespread occurrence of some form of pyrenoid across green algae was due to multiple independent origins of the algal CCM (Meyer *et al.*, 2017), as found in C₄ and CAM pathways (Sage *et al.*, 2011). However, the absence of a pyrenoid does not always equate to lack of a CCM (Giordano *et al.*, 2005), particularly in *Chloromonas*, which is closely related to *Chlamydomonas* (Morita *et al.*, 1999; Nozaki *et al.*, 2002; Pröschold *et al.*, 2001; Meyer *et al.*, 2017), and although the underlying mechanisms of carbon accumulation of such species remain unknown there is also a consistent relationship between carbon isotope composition and CCM activity in those closely related species (M.M.M.Goudet, unpublished observations).

Overall, alignments of the *RbcS* α -helix residues did not discriminate between pyrenoid-positive and pyrenoid-negative species (Fig. 1; Fig. S3). The two *Chlamydomonas* *RbcS* isoforms (Goldschmidt-Clermont & Rahire, 1986) show inverse patterns of gene expression across the day-night cycle (Zones *et al.*, 2015). For the present study, it was not possible to establish the functionality of *RbcS* paralogues in terms of CCM expression (See Materials & Methods). Therefore, determining the exact number of copies, and their sequence specificity, for each of the pyrenoidless species would provide additional confirmation for the absence of specific residues essential for pyrenoid formation in green algae. An extensive evaluation of positive selection also showed no significant shifts in *RbcS* amino acid residues associated with the CCM across the phylogeny (Table 1) whereas 13 residues under positive selection have been detected in *RbcS* in angiosperms (Yamada *et al.*, 2019). The absence of positive selection along branches leading to a pyrenoid could be an artefact of the small number of species *lacking* a pyrenoid within the green algae (Fig. 1), or indeed those possessing some form of a CCM but lacking a pyrenoid (see above). A possible alternative explanation is that all green algae retained a pyrenoid-competent Rubisco SSU but that the absence of a pyrenoid is rather determined by the lack (ancestral or through secondary loss) of a Rubisco linker, of similar or different ancestry as the *C. reinhardtii* EPYC1 (Mackinder *et al.*, 2016). Here too, future comparative proteomic studies with pyrenoidless algal CCMs will help resolve this question.

Streptophyte algal Rubisco SSU structure is similar to land plants

The phylogeny of *RbcS* revealed a Rubisco structure in streptophyte algae similar to that of embryophytes, with SSUs possessing a shorter β A- β B loop and therefore a central solvent channel with a similar open structure as that shown for embryophytes (Spreitzer, 2003). Although the shorter loop in land plants has been well described (Spreitzer, 2003) and was probably thought to be a consequence of the transition from the aquatic environment to land, the presence of a similar structure in the streptophyte algae has not been previously reported. The phylogeny of *RbcS* showed that this loss of amino acids is more ancient, and probably occurred during the split between chlorophytes and streptophyte algae, which occurred somewhere between 736 Mya (Becker, 2013) and 1,000 Mya (early Neoproterozoic; Del Cortona *et al.*, 2020). The Rubisco structural change was not an isolated event at this time. The split between chlorophytes and streptophytes coincides with the appearance of multiple new traits (Hori *et al.*, 2014; Nishiyama *et al.*, 2018) such as lateral flagella, a flagellar peroxidase and also a Gap A/B gene duplication (McCourt *et al.*, 2004; Finet *et al.*, 2010). Interestingly, the photorespiratory pathway, which would have to contend with CCM inefficiencies, has been shown to differ between chlorophytes and streptophyte algae. Chlorophytes use a mitochondrial glycolate dehydrogenase, which produces NADH and H^+ whereas streptophytes use a peroxisomal glycolate oxidase which produces H_2O_2 for the conversion of glycolate to glyoxylate (Stabenau & Winkler, 2005).

The role of the SSU and of the β A- β B loop in particular is not entirely understood but the central solvent channel may facilitate channelling of substrates and products to and from the active sites (Esquivel *et al.*, 2013). Spreitzer (2001; 2002) demonstrated the importance of the loop for holoenzyme assembly and showed that direct mutagenesis within and near the β A- β B loop changed Rubisco catalytic properties. However, these studies did not investigate the relationship to presence or absence of the pyrenoid in green algae and CCM activity. Despite the change in Rubisco SSU structure between chlorophytes and streptophytes, and effect on solvent channel width, the present work showed that there was a continued need for CCMs across the entire phylogeny (Fig. 1), as reflected in the catalytic properties of the streptophyte algae.

Rubisco catalytic properties in green algae depend on CCM efficiency

The above observations led to the investigation of Rubisco catalytic properties within the streptophyte algae and their associated physiological CCM activity. Streptophyte algae are

difficult to investigate physiologically. Oxygen electrode measurements were also extremely challenging (Table 4).

Despite the clear structural change associated with the β A- β B loop length, Rubisco catalytic properties remained generally similar to chlorophytes (Table 3) without systematic shift towards values associated with land plants (Satagopan & Spreitzer, 2008; Kapralov *et al.*, 2010; Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). Of the six streptophyte algae, only *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve* showed K_c values in this lower range. Direct mutagenesis has shown the importance of the SSU β A- β B loop in Rubisco catalytic properties (see paragraph above) but the data in the present study suggested that they were more influenced by the effectiveness of the CCM, consistent with systematic changes in carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$: Table 4). Carbon isotopes have been used to infer leakiness of CCMs found in algae and hornworts (Meyer *et al.*, 2008). Although whole cell inorganic carbon (Ci) uptake affinity was broadly similar for all species under ambient growth conditions ($K_{0.5}$, Table 4), the weaker CCM activities (identified through more negative $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values: Table 4) in *Klebsormidium subtile* and *Onychonema laeve*, were associated with the highest affinity of Rubisco for CO_2 (K_c , Table 3). The importance of the CCM in shaping the adaptation within Rubisco catalytic properties has been a long-standing hypothesis (Tortell, 2000; Young *et al.* 2012; Meyer *et al.*, 2013, Galmés *et al.*, 2014, 2016, 2019; Griffiths *et al.*, 2017), consistent with the shifts seen in C_4 Rubisco (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Sage, 2002; Kubien *et al.*, 2008). Our results show that Rubisco catalytic properties for this representative range of streptophyte algae are adapted to the presence of the CCM.

A strong CCM (uptake and conversion of inorganic carbon) or reduced retrodiffusion (leakiness) is partly consistent with pyrenoid presence for these two species (with either a naked pyrenoid or simple starch sheath: Fig. 3a, d, respectively). In addition, *Klebsormidium subtile* has often been reported to be a cosmopolitan species, colonising a great variety of aquatic and terrestrial habitats (Table S3; Hoffmann, 1989; Rindi *et al.*, 2011; Mikhailyuk *et al.*, 2015). The Rubisco catalytic properties found in *Klebsormidium subtile* would place this species as an intermediate between obligate aquatic green algae and land plants. The future study of real subaerial algae such as *Klebsormidium flaccidum* or *Mesotaenium endlicherianum* would allow a more complete understanding of the photosynthetic adaptation to life on land. In the absence of the liquid boundary layer impeding CO_2 diffusion on land which could affect Rubisco catalytic properties (Raven *et al.*, 1985; Sáez *et al.*, 2017), the naked pyrenoid in *Klebsormidium subtile* would

account for the more land-plant-like Rubisco catalytic properties and a reliance on direct diffusive CO₂ supply.

The co-evolution of Rubisco and CCMs has been demonstrated in multiple non-green photosynthetic organisms (Badger *et al.*, 1998). Diatoms and haptophytes, which possess Form 1D Rubisco, are known to carry most of the oceanic photosynthesis (Delwiche & Palmer, 1997; Yoon *et al.*, 2002; Falkowski *et al.*, 2004). In these groups, Rubisco affinity for CO₂ (K_c) exhibits larger variations, exceeding those of C₄ plant Rubisco suggesting a large diversity of CCM strengths (Young *et al.*, 2016; Heurieux *et al.*, 2017). In addition, the CO₂:O₂ ratio around the active site led to the suggestion that pyrenoids could have an oxygen exclusion function (McKay & Gibbs, 1991; Griffiths *et al.*, 2017). In land plants, Rubisco catalytic properties have been shown to be linked to changes in the atmospheric CO₂:O₂ ratio over time as well as temperature, in addition to leaf architecture, morphology and conductance (Beerling *et al.*, 2001; Franks & Beerling, 2009; Haworth *et al.*, 2011; Galmes *et al.*, 2014; 2015; Sharwood *et al.*, 2016; Conesa *et al.*, 2019). As the atmospheric CO₂:O₂ ratio decreased over time, Galmes *et al.* (2014) showed that land plants developed a Rubisco that was more efficient at carboxylation (higher k_{cat}/K_c ratio) with increased affinity for CO₂ (lower K_c) but slower carboxylation rate (k_{cat}). Alongside these changes in catalytic properties, the proportion of soluble protein present as Rubisco increased, counteracting somewhat the effect of the decrease in carboxylation rate (Galmes *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, higher temperatures increase maximum carboxylase turnover rate (k_{cat}) of Rubisco and decrease CO₂ affinity (Bernacchi *et al.*, 2001; Galmés *et al.*, 2015, 2016).

In conclusion, this study has highlighted that Rubisco SSU structure effectively differentiates between streptophytes and core chlorophytes, with a transition occurring in the prasinophyte clade which contains mostly species with a long β A- β B loop. Otherwise, the *RbcS* phylogeny recaptures the latest consensus green algal phylogenies built from many marker genes, including *rbcL* (Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). A more focussed study on Rubisco catalytic properties in streptophyte algae suggests that the activity of any CCM, which may have arisen because of limitations in bulk CO₂ delivery to Rubisco, has permitted the retention of a lower affinity (high K_c) Rubisco. We showed that the extent of adaptation which occurs should either cause CCM activity to be reduced, or indeed lost during the transition to land, as the reliance on gaseous diffusion to deliver CO₂ to Rubisco began to increase. Overall, the observations confirm the widespread occurrence of a CCM across the entire green algal lineage through the means of a

pyrenoid-based CCM to fuel carbon fixation by Rubisco. However, rather than being intransigent and slow, Rubisco catalytic properties adapt to local conditions of CO₂ availability. This is consistent with the changes seen in Rubisco from C₄ (Jordan & Ogren, 1981; Sage, 2002; Kubien *et al.*, 2008) and CAM plants (Griffiths *et al.*, 2008), which have been associated with operating within a CCM for the past 5-10 million years. Based on this study, the selective pressures driven by local conditions of photosynthetic CO₂ supply are more likely to explain the shifts in Rubisco catalytic properties during life on land, rather than any long term transition seen in land plants.

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Author Contributions

M.M.M.G, H.G and M.T.M planned the research. D.J.O, E.C-S and M.M.M.G designed and performed the experiments on Rubisco kinetics and D.J.O. analysed the data. M.M.M.G performed the phylogenetic analyses, positive selection and physiological data collection and analysis. K.H.M. performed SEM imaging. M.M. provided the *RbcS* sequences. M.M.M.G and H.G. interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript with assistance from all authors.

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Figure legends:

Fig. 1 Protein phylogeny of the small subunit of Rubisco (*RbcS*) in green algae built with BEAST 2 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014). Branches were colored according to the different phylum [chlorophytes: green (with prasinophytes in blue); streptophyte algae: orange]. Species lacking pyrenoids are indicated in bold red font. Length of the β A- β B loop was mapped onto each species and highlighted by the colour chart in the top left corner (species with a β A- β B loop length superior or equal to 25 residues are highlighted in the different shade of orange whereas species with a loop length inferior to 25 are highlighted in the different shade of blue). The phylogeny is clustered in two main clades. The first includes all the chlorophytes (green branches) and some prasinophytes (blue branches) and shows a loop length greater than, or equal to 25 residues. The second cluster includes all the streptophyte algae (orange branches) and the remaining prasinophytes (blue branches) with a loop length lower than 25 residues. Species without a pyrenoid (red font) are distributed across the phylogeny and not clustered together.

Fig. 2 Alignment of Rubisco small subunit (*RbcS*) sequences sampled from the 1KP, representative of streptophyte algae. The two isoforms of *RbcS* in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes, *Cr1* and *Cr2*) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (*At*, land plants) are shown for comparison. *Ca* (*Chlorokybus atmophyticus*), *Ks* (*Klebsormidium subtile*), *Cs* (*Cosmarium subtumidum*), *Ol* (*Onychonema laeve*), *Ci* (*Coleochaete irregularis*) and *Ss* (*Spirogyra* sp.). Red boxes indicate residues of the two α -helices, green boxes indicate residues of the four β sheets and the blue box includes all the residues of the β A- β B loop. The alignment clearly shows the absence of five amino acids, between sites 61 to 66 (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* amino acid position is taken as reference).

Fig. 3 Electron micrographs of the six representative streptophyte algae and of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (a: *Klebsormidium subtile*, b: *Cosmarium subtumidum*, c: *Chlorokybus atmophyticus*, d: *Onychonema laeve*, e: *Spirogyra* sp., f: *Coleochaete scutata* (from McKay *et al.*, 1991), g: *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*). Three distinct pyrenoid morphologies can be observed: matrix enclosed by one layer of starch plates (b, d, e, f and g); matrix enclosed by multiple starch grains (c); and pyrenoid without observable starch sheath (a). Bars: 2 μ m (a to e) and 0.5 μ m (f and g).

Table 1 Results of the three Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRTs) for positive selection using the site-models (M0-M8) (codeml) implemented in PAML (Yang, 2007) and their associated parameters.

	Number of classes (ω)	N ^a	Length (bp) ^b	LRT (2 Δ lnL)	P-value (P<0.05)	df ^c
M0	1	135	462	2312.99077	<0.0001	8
M3	5	135	462			
M7	10	135	462			
M8	11	135	462	0	0.5	2
M8a	11	135	462	0	0.5	1
M8	11	135	462			

a: number of sequences analysed

b: length of *RbcS* sequences analysed

c: degrees of freedom

Table 2: Results of the three LRTs for positive selection using the branch-models (H0-H1) (codeml) implemented in PAML (Yang, 2007) and their associated parameters.

	dN/dS	LRT (2ΔlnL)	<i>P</i>-value (P<0.05)	df
H0	$\omega=0.08445$			
H1	$\omega^a=0.08262$ $\omega^b=0.16371$	9.358	0.0011	1

a: omega for background branches

b: omega for foreground branches

Table 3 Kinetic parameters of Rubisco at 25 °C in streptophyte algae in comparison to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (land plant) previously measured using the same protocol (Atkinson *et al.*, 2017).

Species name	n ^a	k _{cat} (s ⁻¹)	K _c (μM)	K _c ^{air} (μM)	k _{cat} /K _c	k _{cat} /K _c ^{air}
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	3	3.25 ± 0.18	39.6 ± 5.1	50.9 ± 7.0	0.086 ± 0.015	0.067 ± 0.011
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i>	6	3.79 ± 0.67	18.7 ± 1.4	28.8 ± 2.1	0.228 ± 0.070	0.144 ± 0.040
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i>	4	2.51 ± 0.45	45.3 ± 13.1	55.6 ± 12.7	0.061 ± 0.008	0.040 ± 0.006
<i>Onychonema laeve</i>	4	2.39 ± 0.44	27.3 ± 5.5	40.9 ± 1.6	0.088 ± 0.003	0.052 ± 0.010
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp.	5	4.90 ± 0.32	49.1 ± 8.0	56.9 ± 4.3	0.108 ± 0.015	0.086 ± 0.010
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i>	4	1.67 ± 0.29	43.1 ± 9.8	48.2 ± 3.9	0.047 ± 0.013	0.032 ± 0.009
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 2017)		4.10 ± 0.10	10.7 ± 0.7	15.8 ± 1.0	–	0.25 ± 0.01

a: number of replicates

Species are ordered from the furthest species (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, Chlorophytes, Chlorophyceae) away from land plants to the closest (*Coleochaete scutata*, Coleochaetophyceae, Streptophytes). Values are means ± SEM.

Table 4 Whole cell affinity for inorganic carbon in the six streptophyte algae representative species and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) grown under low CO₂ conditions (9 μM) and their associated δ¹³C for organic matter.

Species name	K _{0.5} (Ci) (μM)	δ ¹³ C (‰)
<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i> (n=3)	54 ± 23	-18.86 ± 0.01
<i>Chlorokybus atmophyticus</i> (n=3)	62 ± 26	-18.36 ± 0.02
<i>Klebsormidium subtile</i> (n=3)	53 ± 20	-21.18 ± 0.02
<i>Cosmarium subtumidum</i> (n=3)	64 ± 32	-15.80 ± 0.03
<i>Onychonema laeve</i> (n=3)	62 ± 40	-21.31 ± 0.03
<i>Spirogyra</i> sp. (n=3)	48 ± 38	-17.85 ± 0.04
<i>Coleochaete scutata</i> (n=3)	45 ± 23	-18.50 ± 0.09

Species are ordered from the furthest species away from land plants (*Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, Chlorophytes, Chlorophyceae) to the closest (*Coleochaete scutata*, Coleochaetophyceae, Charophytes). Values are means ± SEM. n=number of replicates.

Supporting Information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Fig. S1 Evolutionary relationship of algae issued of the primary endosymbiosis and the major glaciation events which occurred during the diversification of the green algal lineages.

Fig. S2 Phylogenetic tree of 64 green algae species based on the nucleotide alignment of 44 chloroplastic genes.

Fig. S3 Comparison of the amino acid composition of the two Rubisco SSU α -helices for species without pyrenoid, compared to *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (pyrenoid positive).

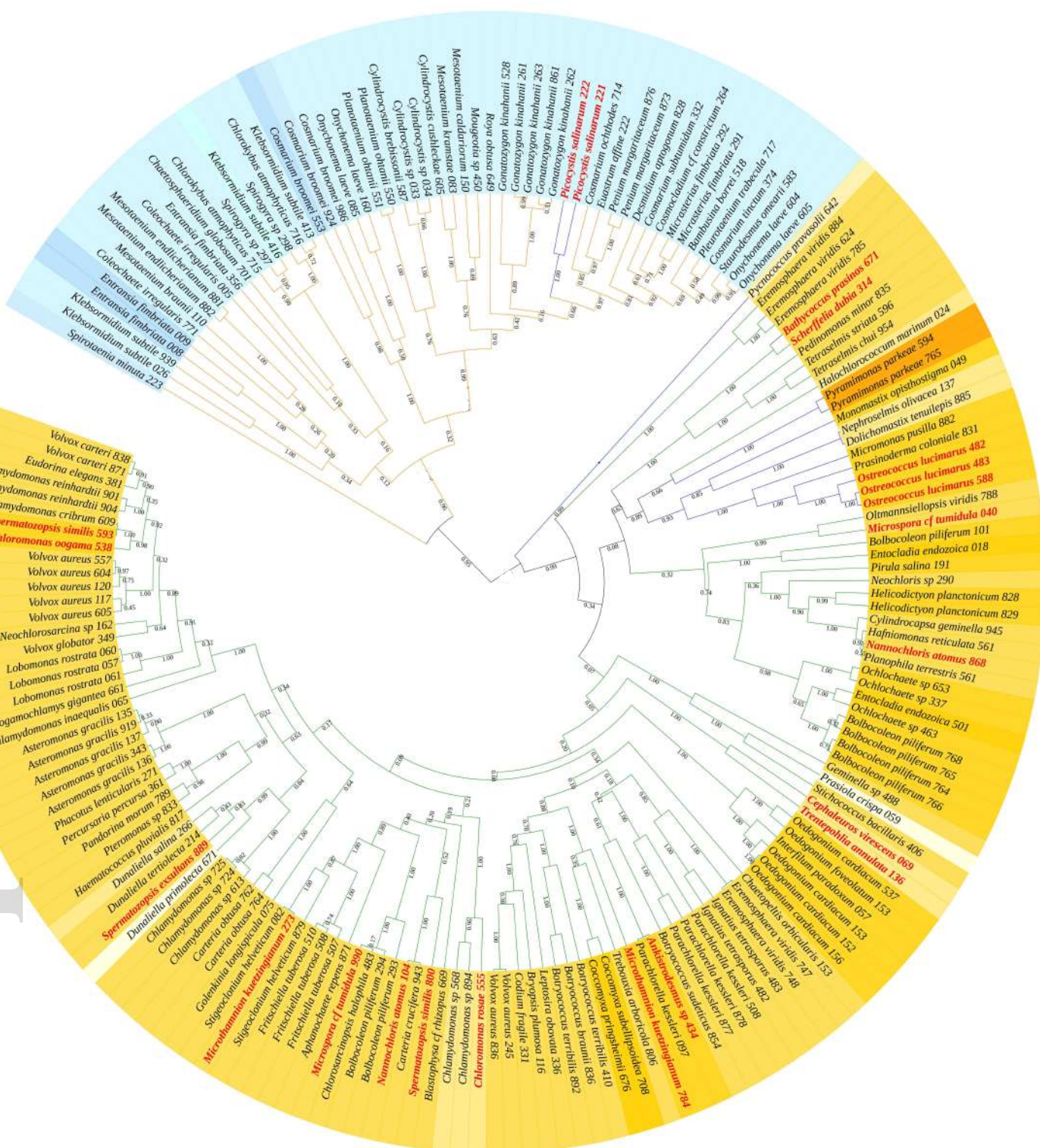
Fig. S4 DNA phylogeny of *RbcS* used for the PAML analysis and built with BEAST v2.3.1.

Table S1 Pyrenoid diagnostic for all the species present in the phylogeny of *RbcS* and the associated references.

Table S2 Growth media and accession number of the six streptophyte algae.

Table S3 Classification and habitat description of the six streptophyte algae.

Table S4 Whole-cell affinity for inorganic carbon in the six streptophyte algae representative species and *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Chlorophytes) grown under high CO₂ conditions (5% CO₂) and their associated $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for organic matter.

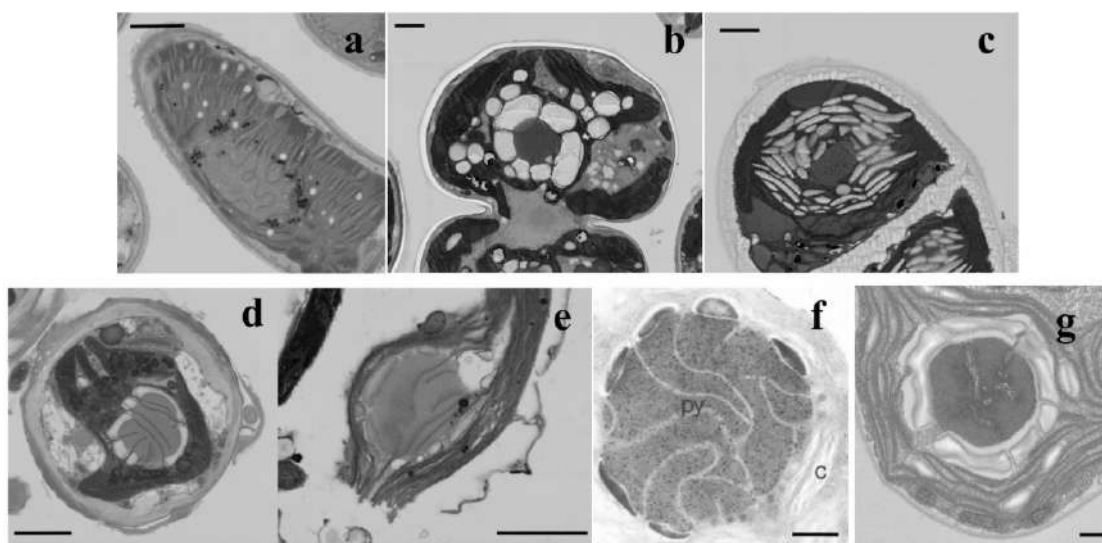


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		10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Cr1	MVWTFVNNKMFETFSYLPPLT	DEQIAAQVDYIVANGWI	PCLEFA	EADKAYVSNESAIRFGSVSCLYYDNRYW	TMWKLP	PMFGCRDPM			
Cr2	MVWTFVNNKMFETFSYLPPLS	DEQIAAQVDYIVANGWI	PCLEFA	ESDKAYVSNESAIRFGSVSCLYYDNRYW	TMWKLP	PMFGCRDPM			
Ca715	LVWSPYNNTKYETLSYLPPLS	DSIAIAKEIDYMLANGWVPCLEF	EED-GAIKRIYNSGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	LWKLP	PMFGCNDAS		
Ca716	LVWSPYNNTKYETLSYLPPLS	DSIAIAKEIDYMLANGWVPCLEF	EED-GAIKRIYNSGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	LWKLP	PMFGCNDAS		
Ks026	QVWTFPINNRKFETLSYLPPLS	AEQILRQVDYLLAQGWSPCVEF	DTD-GF1HREHHTGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	TMWKLP	PMFGQDAN		
Ks939	KGWTFPLNNKKFETLSYLPPLS	AASLMKQVEYLLGKGWSPCIEF	DTN-GT1YREHHTSPG	----	YYDGRYWT	TMWKLP	PLFGCTDAS		
Cs332	KVWNFINNNPKFETLSYLPPLS	NDTIAKQIRYMLANGWTPALEF	DPS-GVVYRENNSGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	LWKLP	PLFGCTDPS		
Ol085	KVWPIVGLKKFETLSYLPDLT	VDQLVKQIDYLLRSGWVPCLEF	SYE-GFVYREYGATPG	----	YYDGRYWT	TMWKLP	PMFGCTDAA		
Ol160	KVWPIVGLKKFETLSYLPPLT	VDQLVKQIDYLLRSGWVPCLEF	SYN-GFVYREYGATPG	----	YYDGRYWT	TMWKLP	PMFGCNDPA		
Ol604	KVWNFINNNPKFETLSYLPALT	DDIAKQVRYMLAKGWI	PCLEF	DPS-GVVYRENNSGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	LWKLP	PPFGCNDPS	
Ol605	KVWNFINNNPKFETLSYLPALT	DDIAKQVRYMLAKGWI	PCLEF	DPS-GVVYRENNSGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	LWKLP	PLFGCNDPS	
Ci005	KVWNFINNNLKFTETLSYLPPLT	PDQIAAREIYEMMRQGWTPCLEF	DNV-GI1SRDNHTSPG	----	YYDNRYWT	TMWKLP	PMFGCSDAA		
Ci771	LVWQPYDNKKWETLSYLPPLS	PEQILKQVDYLLRNRWVPCLEF	EEN-AEICRVYHRSPG	----	YYDGRYWT	TMWKLP	PMFGQDSS		
Ss297	LVWSPYNNTKYETLSYLPPLS	DAAIAKEIDYMLKNGWVPCLEF	EED-GAIKRIYNSGPG	----	YYDGRYWT	LWKLP	PMFGCNDAS		
At	KVWPP1GKKKFETLSYLPDLS	DVELAKEVDYLLR	NKW1PCVEF	ELEHGFVYREHGNTPG	----	YYDGRYWT	TMWKLP	PLFGCTDSA	

	80	90	100	110	120	
Cr1	FGCRD	PMQVLR	EIVACTKAF	PDAYVRLVAFDNQKQVQIMGFLVQR	P	
Cr2	FGCRD	PMQVLR	EIVACTKAF	PDAYVRLVAFDNQKQVQIMGFLVQR	P	
Ca715	FGCND	SYQVLR	EIDEAKRAYPNS	FIRVLGFDN1KQVQCM	SF1VHKP	
Ca716	FGCND	ASQVLR	EIEAKRAYPNC	FLRLLAFDN1KQVQCM	SF1VAKP	
Ks026	FGCQD	ANEVLR	EVVEECKRNF	PGTYVRLVGFNKARQVQAA	GF1VYKP	
Ks939	FGCTD	ASQVLR	KEVECKSAYPNAY	IRVLGFDNRKRQVQAA	AF1VYKP	
Cs332	FGCTD	PSQVLR	ELAEAKAAYPNC	FIRILGFDNIRQVQCM	SF1AYKP	
Ol085	FGCTD	AAQVLR	ELECKKEYPKCF	VRI1GFDNRRQVCV	SF1AYKP	
Ol160	FGCND	PAQVLR	ELEACKAEYPKTF	FIRI1GFDNRRQVCV	SF1AYKP	
Ol604	FGCND	PSQVLR	ELQEA	KAAYPNC	FIRILGFDNIRQVQCM	SF1AYKP
Ol605	FGCND	PSQVLR	ELQEA	KAAYPNC	FIRILGFDNIRQVQCM	SF1AYKP
Ci005	FGCSD	AAQVLR	EISECKRQFP	SAYIRVCGFDS	AKQVCV	SF1VQKP
Ci771	FGCQD	SSQVLR	QEVNECKKAF	PKAYIRVIGFDAKRQVQ	CI	SF1VHKP
Ss297	FGCND	SYQVLR	EIEAKKAYPNS	FIRCLGFDN1KQVQCM	SF1VHKP	
At	FGCTD	SAQVLR	KEVECKKEYPGAF	FIRI1GFDNTRQVC	CI	SF1AYKP

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